

The Social Studies

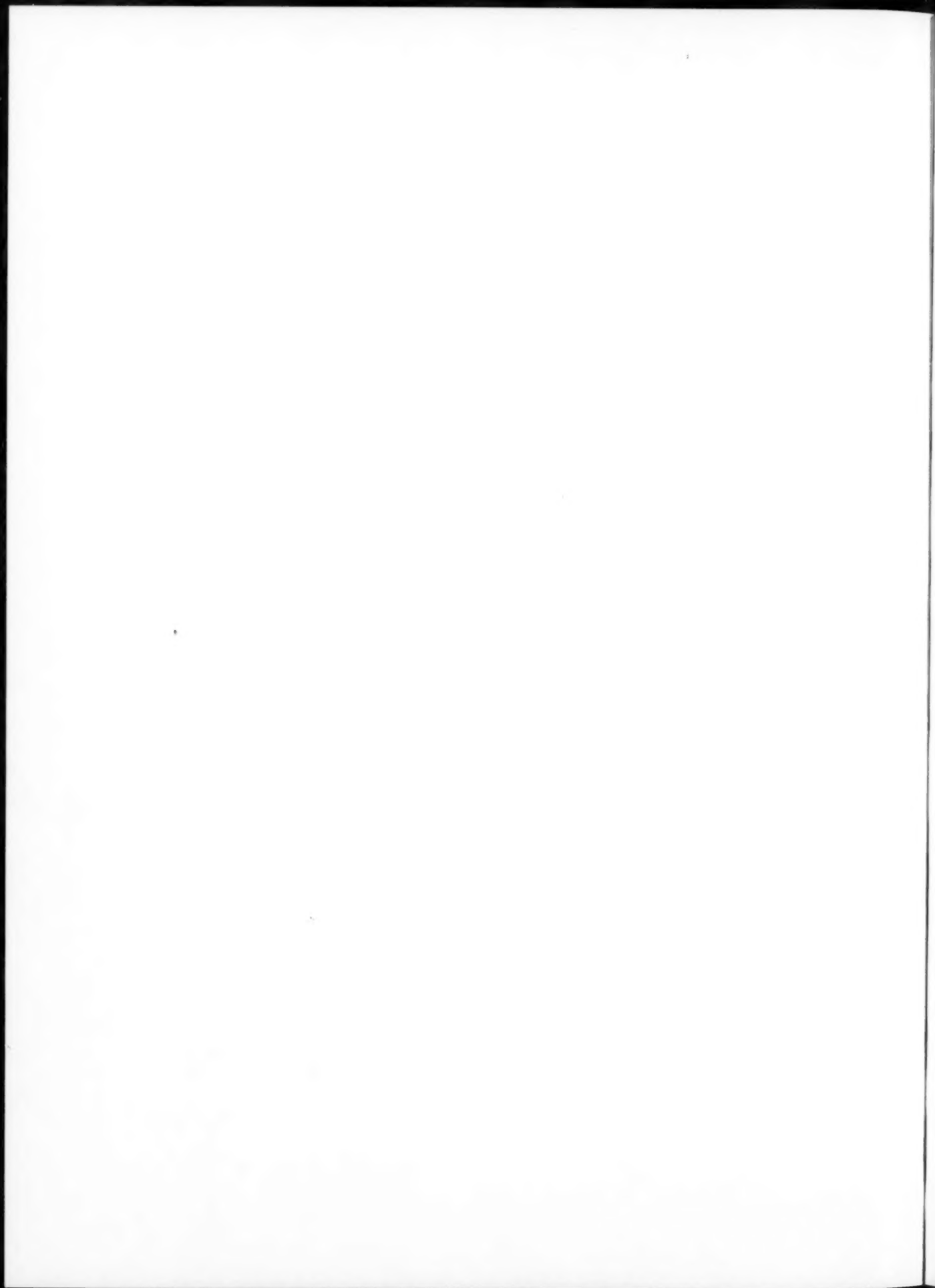
Continuing

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Contents

What the Schools Can Do to Promote International Good Will	J. M. Klotsche	3
A Pessimistic Unit	H. E. Dewey	6
A High School Course in Sociology	Wayne Swinton	8
Teaching Government	John Horrocks	10
The International Forum	G. T. Renner and R. B. Nixon	12
Peru, by Luis M. Alzamora		
Some Methods of Teaching the Social Studies in Hawaii	Paul E. Baker	17
The Teacher of the Social Studies	W. R. Davis	19
The Use of Local Statistics in High School Courses in Sociology and Social Problems	Proctor W. Maynard	22
Illustrated Section		23
News and Comment	Morris Wolf	32
Motion Picture Department	A. E. McKinley, Jr.	37
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Richard Heindel	37
Current Publications Received		48

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXI, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1940

What the Schools Can Do to Promote International Good Will

J. M. KLOTSCHE

State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Several months ago I had the opportunity to conduct a survey among average high school and college groups in an attempt to discover the reactions of these youth to world affairs and particularly to detect what kind of international attitudes they had developed. Nothing in my teaching experience so convinced me of the need for reappraising the role of the school in the promotion of international good will than did this particular study. While space does not permit a careful analysis of the results, some of the data of this survey will illustrate the point that somewhere along the line between kindergarten and the secondary school, prejudices and superstitions about other people and nations had been established that were astounding. When asked "What is your first reaction when you hear the word 'Japan?'" the following attitudes were expressed—"queer people," "primitive," "war-like race of slanty eyed people," "blood thirsty, sly, people sitting on floors," "cheap goods, a backward nation with lots of fights," while Russia was a country "of ice and mountains" inhabited by "bearded, illiterate men" where revolutions were the order of the day—a vast country peopled by "a stupid peasant race and governed by a blood thirsty group." Mexicans were classified as lazy, Germans as crooks, Chinese as opium eaters, and Italians as robbers. While such reactions were not universally expressed they were sufficiently characteristic of a large enough percentage of the entire group examined to make the deduction that much

was yet to be done in educating our youth toward world-mindedness. While the schools are not to be entirely blamed for allowing such attitudes to develop, yet a large share of the responsibility must be placed on its shoulders.

At the same time that this survey on international attitudes was being conducted I also examined a collection of books being used in the public schools. This examination helped me to understand in part how such attitudes as those mentioned could easily develop. The condescending, patronizing attitude toward other people was especially characteristic of much of the literature examined. There is little wonder that false values about other people are developed in the schools and that even in face of new evidence, childhood impressions continue to persist, during adolescence and adulthood. One is reminded of the case of the little girl in prayer asking the Lord "to bless her father, mother, brothers and sisters, aunt and uncle, the teachers and all of the children at school except that new foreigner who has just entered my class."

In answering the question: "What can the schools do to promote international good will?" it is not my intention either to analyze the specific curriculum of the school or to discuss the literature used in the schools. Rather it is my purpose to suggest certain approaches and attitudes on international relations that are desirable ones and to simply suggest that curriculum changes and reappraisal of children's

literature must follow in order to coincide with these attitudes.

The first prerequisite, an essential corollary of the educational process itself, is the need for factual information completely divorced from sentimentalism, superstition and emotionalism, and deeply anchored in a search for truth and an open-mindedness that is willing to admit that new knowledge may discredit old convictions. The expression of definite ideas based upon inadequate knowledge or no knowledge at all is too characteristic of much of our thinking today. A study conducted a few years ago to determine what American high school students thought about Canada and what Canadians in turn thought of the United States revealed some startling results. "Canada is just a square of pink color on the map of North America to me," or "I am terribly ignorant in regard to Canada, and all I think of is fish, snow, cold, ice," were some of the reactions of American school children, while to one Canadian youth "the United States is a hot-bed of hustling, flag-waving, gum chewing men and women whose dignity is conspicuous by its absence," or "Crime in the states is astounding. Weapons are easy to obtain and anybody out of a job joins a gang and becomes a gangster." Just before the close of the last school year I heard a college student remark when asked what he thought about the Mexican government expropriating oil properties belonging to American business interests that "the Mexicans are all just a bunch of robbers." Interested in pursuing this reaction, a fellow student asked for an explanation. "I don't know a single thing about the Mexican oil case," the boy retorted confidently but "frankly anything the Mexicans do is wrong in my estimation." On closer examination it appeared that he had no understanding of the problem, had no idea of the institutions peculiar to Mexico, had never heard of Cardenas, and was certain that nine out of ten Mexicans were illiterate. It was a perfect case of prejudice and ill-will, based upon complete ignorance mindful of the case of the young man, when asked whether he had made up his mind on a particular subject said that he had not yet done so, but that when he did he would be very, very bitter.

Understanding based upon fact and information is, therefore, a prime essential. This in itself will not of course produce desirable international attitudes. Too often information is collected and used for the sole purpose of excusing one's conduct, an example of which is furnished by Philip II of Spain, an intensely religious zealot, who was dissuaded by his political advisers from building a canal across the Isthmus of Panama because they had satisfied him that it was a violation of the law of God and proved their case by quoting from the Bible: "What God hath joined together, let not man put asunder."

Since fact and information can often be put to diverse and sometimes to dangerous uses, the teacher should not be satisfied after he or she has accumulated and has transferred to the student vast stores of information. It was because too much emphasis was placed upon pure knowledge of fact that Americans were characterized by one person as "the best half-educated people in the world." Quite as essential in developing a sane and wholesome point of view towards other peoples is the need for establishing a frame of reference that will incorporate directly or indirectly desirable attitudes into the school room. In suggesting such a frame of reference I am not concerned about the charge that it would create a rigid standard of content that could easily open the way for indoctrination along a certain clearly defined path, and that such a frame of reference would have the same effect as that of a manufacturer of automobiles who insisted that his product could be painted any color as long as it was black. To me it seems basic that the teacher in the contemporary world must have not only knowledge of fact but must also be willing and able to develop correct attitudes in his or her students. This is quite as true in the field of international relations as in national, community, family and personal relations.

However, before a frame of reference intended to develop wholesome international attitudes can be developed, the teacher himself must be free from prejudices apt to neutralize such a frame of reference. Unwittingly, a teacher may implant his or her personal prejudices into children. A teacher visiting a school with a high percentage of foreign born children turned to a child of American parentage and asked if the child did not object to this situation. "Of course not," was the immediate reply. The visitor then went on to say that such a situation would never have been permitted in the community in which she taught. Often the prejudices of the teacher are more concealed and may even be unconsciously a part of the teacher's behavior. Failure to give as much attention or as much encouragement to members of the class who are racially or nationally different on the assumption that people of other nationalities are inherently more stupid or less responsive to attention is a case in point.

Assuming, however, that the teacher has divorced himself as much as possible from his prejudices, what are the desirable attitudes that should be incorporated into such a frame of reference that would tend to foster rather than to discourage international good will. First, it cannot be emphasized too often in the school that the contributions that have been made from ancient times to the present are not the possessions of one race, one nationality, or one people, but that they are international in scope. The fine arts lend themselves particularly to this point of

view. Music has often been referred to as a language that knows no national boundaries. A Bach fugue, a Brahms symphony, a Handel oratorio transcend all nationalism and should preclude any possibility of fear or exclusivism towards the composers themselves or those people of which they are a part. Even where a nationalistic music exists it lends itself admirably to an understanding of the customs and institutions of various peoples. I have always felt that a Strauss waltz gave me a better insight into the temperament of the Viennese people. One might say the same of other musicians.

The study of science also lends itself to a realization that human progress is international in scope. Without the contributions of a Frenchman—Louis Pasteur, scientific advances in other parts of the world would not have been possible. The names of Copernicus, Galileo and Einstein further suggest that scientific advances are not the sole possessions of any one country.

An appraisal and acknowledgment of such contributions even though they may be of other nations and peoples need not conflict with loyalty to one's nation. It is simply an admission that other nations have something to contribute to the progress of civilization. This I feel is basic and therefore consider it the first of the minimum essentials that should be included in a frame of reference intended to promote international understanding.

A second principle essential in establishing a proper set of attitudes toward other peoples is a clear presentation of the real reasons for differences in customs, manners and habits of one group from those of other groups. Too often the attitude toward other groups is one of condescension and ridicule. "How queer!" "Can you imagine living like those people?" "How backward!" My recollection of Africa as taught in the elementary school was one of a continent with tropical climate, inhabited by people best known because of absence of clothes, endowed with unusual idleness, who worshipped at the altar of cannibalism. I have been amazed to find many attitudes about other peoples expressed in my college classes during the past few years traceable directly to childhood experiences or prejudices cultivated at an early age.

It is, therefore, essential not to classify people who are different from us as quaint, queer, or strange, but to understand the reason for such differences. The rebuke of the Chinese guide to an American tourist serves as an illustration. When asked derisively by the American tourist when he (the Chinese guide) thought that his ancestors would rise from their graves to enjoy the tea and rice placed there by mourners he said: "On exactly the same day that your ancestors will rise from their graves to smell the flowers put there by their mourners." Great op-

portunities are offered especially in the teaching of geography. If it can be emphasized, for instance, that many of the situations that differentiate peoples are the result of the adjustment of man to his environment and that man has succeeded in surviving because he has made these adjustments, the feeling of quaintness and curiosity will be replaced by one of understanding and appreciation. That because of his environment the man of the Arctic is conditioned into a different pattern of existence from the man of the tropics is a case in point.

Not only should differences between groups be intelligently analyzed as a product of environmental differences but much can be done to create understanding by analyzing the reasons for attitudes on the part of one people toward another. That diplomatic relations between the United States and Brazil on the one hand and the United States and Argentina on the other, differ, is in part due to the fact that Brazil, a tropical country, produces a number of basic commodities for which there is a demand in the United States, such as coffee while Argentina, a temperate zone country, produces many of the same commodities that we produce. While it would be an oversimplification to explain our different attitudes towards these two countries by this comparison, a simple lesson in trade and commercial relations between the three countries would help to explain in some measure the nature of our relationship with these countries.

Some will say that much less harm will be done if the teacher will slide over these various differences or perhaps completely disregard them. This is unwise. Eventually the child will be subjected to these attitudes anyway and it is highly desirable to have these points of view analyzed realistically under conditions more favorable to intelligent treatment than may be found in circumstances outside of the school-room. The danger comes not in pointing out these differences between groups and nationalities and rationally attempting to explain the reason for such differences but in cultivating these differences with the specific object in mind of promoting in the student intense nationalistic loyalties that would feed on such distinctions and contrasts.

A third basic attitude that should be incorporated into a frame of reference on what the schools can do to promote international good will is to recognize frankly the existence of conflict, but to establish the fact that conflicts can be resolved by compromise and adjudication rather than by force and violence. This substitute of coöperation for violence in the settlement of conflict need not be confined in the curriculum to what may appear to be the remote and far removed field of international relations. It is no more intelligent to have a child fight out his problems on the playground than it is for nations to re-

sort to force to solve their problems. The teacher has unlimited opportunities, both in and out of the classroom to cultivate an attitude of fairness in the child, a desire to see all sides of all questions and be made to understand the effect of his acts upon others. It might also be suggested that less emphasis be placed in the school upon competition, especially competition in the extreme form that can only lead to resentments, rivalries and jealousies. If need be, the whole program of a school should be modified to teach more of the coöperative spirit and less of the competitive. The difficulty of teaching world co-operation in an atmosphere of intense rivalry and competition within the school should be rather obvious to all of us. If, however, the coöperative spirit prevails in the school it becomes easier to convince a child that the growth and progress of civilization is due not to intensification of conflict but due to the reduction of it through peaceful methods.

A fourth and final premise that should be a part of a frame of reference on good will attitudes is to teach that there shall not be in the mind of the student a dual set of standards—one for himself and another for someone else. If it is right for a child to tease and annoy a member of his group it is right for someone else to annoy and tease the original offender too. If it is right for a person to monopolize playground equipment, it should be right for someone else to do so. Behavior attitudes should become absolute rather than relative. If such qualities as good sportsmanship, self control, respect for the rights of others, honesty, fair play are valid for one person they should be valid for all. To condemn someone else for faults which you yourself possess is an irrational, but commonplace attitude. One of the most tragic cases in recent years was that of a college student, president of a student governing association, found guilty of dishonesty on his campus shortly after he himself had been chief judge in a notorious cheating case that had led to the expulsion

of several students from the campus. If a double standard of moral values are inculcated into the student it becomes easy to accept a double standard of values for groups as well as nations. The menace of contemporary nationalism is the haste with which it condemns practices of an opposing group or nation, practices which it at an earlier time condoned in justifying its own course of action. One is reminded of the story of the gambler who had successfully drained his opponents of their respective fortunes and then boastfully announced: "I now pronounce gambling to be highly immoral. I will, however, keep my winnings." Much can be done in the schools to prevent such a dualism in standards from developing.

Several suggestions have thus far been made in approaching the problem of what attitudes should be encouraged to promote international good will. It is not my intention to discuss the methods and techniques by which such a set of attitudes could most effectively become a part of the school curriculum. In conclusion, I should just like to suggest one thought on the matter of procedure. Education for international good will should not be deliberate or conscious. Since the term "peace education" or "world-mindedness" might easily create prejudices, indirect methods should prove much more desirable. Furthermore, since so much of the development of proper international attitudes is tied up with the entire program of the school, not only in the teaching of subject matter, but in the development of the proper behavior pattern it would appear almost certain that much more can be accomplished by a teacher in the development of proper international attitudes if such a program were an integrated part of the entire school curriculum. Only then can we hope to eliminate the exclusivism implied in the saying:

East is East, and West is West
And ne'er the twain shall meet.

A Pessimistic Unit

H. E. DEWEY

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The opening of the school year 1939-40 so nearly coincided with the outbreak of the new European War that the only unit I could conscientiously extract from my pedagogical "bag of tricks" was a unit on international relations. My class of nineteen sophisticated seniors did not immediately display the brand of eager enthusiasm which is supposed to be characteristic of the "child-centered school,"

but they were curious, and my hope was to develop that curiosity into a sustained interest.

With no textbook available we were thrown back upon our own resources and the school library. Since most of the pupils had completed a previous course in which the last unit had been a study of international relations since the World War of 1914, the logical next step was a review of leading interna-

tional events since about 1930. Each pupil was asked to go through the periodical literature, the *World Almanac*, the *American Yearbook* and other recent publications, and to make out a list of such incidents and events, choosing those which they considered internationally important. No definite references were given to any pupil.

The results were surprising. One of the pupils had to be dissuaded from going through the files of the *New York Sunday Times* for the last ten years. A few other pupils seemed to be unable to discover that anything of any importance had been happening in the world since 1930. But the final composite result of class research was a list of 119 items, beginning with the conclusion of the Dawes Plan in 1930 and ending with the German invasion of Poland in August 1939. The list included twenty-five international agreements and treaties, some involving only two nations, others calling together fifty or more; six big or little wars in both hemispheres; and about eighty-eight minor incidents, some of which, although they seemed to be unimportant at the time, proved to be highly significant when viewed from a 1939 perspective.

A few sample incidents, selected at random, one for each year:

- 1930—Nazis gained seats in Reichstag, but not a majority.
- 1931—Hoover's European debt moratorium.
- 1932—Japanese attack on Shanghai.
- 1933—Rise to power of Nazis in Germany.
- 1934—Assassination of Premier Dolfuss in Austria.
- 1935—The purge of German storm troops.
- 1936—Death of George V. King of England.
- 1937—Panay Incident.
- 1938—Annexation of Austria by Germany.
- 1939—Franco's government in Spain recognized.

Our next task was to select the most important items for detailed study. There was so much overlapping that there was reason to believe that nearly every item would reappear in class discussion, not only once but several times. This not only proved to be the case, but, had there been any value in so doing, we might have compiled a much longer list at the end of the unit.

Instead of carrying through such a profitless enterprise, however, we proceeded to select subjects for individual study. These were chosen on three bases: (1) the individual preferences of the pupils; (2) the events or incidents most frequently mentioned in the original lists; and (3) the grouping of series of events to cover the period 1930 to 1939. Since it would have been impossible to understand all the important factors in international relations by limiting ourselves to such a short period, we decided to

take the liberty of broadening the subjects by including a longer period in a number of cases.

More than a week of class time was taken to hear the reports presented in the various subjects chosen. The complete list is given in the order which we decided was advisable:

- (1) The General Background of the Current European War. This report hit the high spots only, and was based partially on the pamphlet *Background for War* issued by *Time Magazine*.
- (2) The Locarno Treaty of 1925.
- (3) London Naval Treaty of 1930.
- (4) Lausanne Conference of 1932.
- (5) Four Power Peace Pact of 1933.
- (6) Stresa Conference of 1935.
- (7) Geneva Conference of 1936.
- (8) Anti-Comintern Pact of 1937.
- (9) The Rise of the Nazis to Power in Germany.
- (10) German Territorial Acquisitions to 1939.
- (11) Causes and Progress of the War Between Japan and China.
- (12) Russia and Russian Policies Since 1917.
- (13) Spain and the Civil War in Spain.
- (14) British and French Foreign Policies Since the World War.
- (15) Italy and Its Foreign Policies Since 1919.
- (16) European Debt Settlements Since the Dawes Plan.
- (17) Pan-American Conferences and Foreign Policies in the Western Hemisphere.
- (18) Foreign Policies of the United States since the World War.

During the progress of the unit we eagerly followed the newspapers and news periodicals, listened to President Roosevelt's neutrality speech over the radio in a body, and received informal reports of many other radio news programs. Class discussion on the attitudes and policies of our own nation was practically continuous. Incidentally, we frequently touched upon the dangers of being persuaded by conflicting propaganda, and learned that day-by-day reports were not to be taken as reliable.

Although admittedly incomplete, the unit consumed about four weeks. Pupils were tested at the end in three aspects of the unit: (1) the terminology of international relations, involving the use of about 125 words, phrases, and special terms applicable to international relations; (2) the total content of the unit, covered by a written summary of all the reports; and (3) the understanding of the principles involved in the present position of the United States in international affairs.

The purpose of the unit was *not* to reach final conclusions, but to introduce the material in such a way as to develop a sustained interest reaching far beyond the limitations of a fifty minute period once

a day for four weeks. The materials were collected by the class rather than by the teacher, and they represented an interest already present but not developed.

Pupil reactions were interesting. In the reports on international conferences there was constant repetition of a phrase that should be impressive to adults: "_____treaty turned out to be a mere scrap of paper." Although most of the pupils were definitely sympathetic with Britain and France and had little admiration for Hitler, they did not fail to emphasize the injustices of the Treaty of Versailles, and they refused to overlook the wavering attitudes of the British and French in meeting their obligations to the small nations. One boy gave very effectively the Japanese side of the dispute with China, another presented Hitler's case, but closed with the remark that he was opposed to Hitler's methods.

As I taught the unit, I could not help reviving the memory of the last World War. By 1917 school children all over the nation had been persuaded that ours was a just and worthy cause, that the Germans were Huns and ruthless barbarians, and that the extermination of "Kaiser Bill" was a noble enterprise. It has been said that through skillful propaganda we could again create such a situation and a similar type of chauvinism, but I do not believe it. There is a net gain in the extent to which people of all ages are immunizing themselves against misleading propaganda.

Another contrast struck me with great force. This generation of high school pupils is a far cry from the pupils of thirty years ago. I quote from a clipping of 1909:

Peace on Earth

In these opening days of a new year it will be profitable to recall the notable progress that is being made toward a real world peace by the conclusion of arbitration treaties between almost literally all the nations of the globe. The following table of treaties concluded since the

first Hague Conference is compiled from lists published in the latest number of the *American Journal of International Law*:

The list contains no less than 135 treaties, most of them binding the signatories to submit to the Hague Tribunal all differences in so far as they do not affect the independence, the honor, the vital interests, or the exercise of sovereignty of the contracting countries, and provided it has been impossible to obtain an amicable solution by means of direct diplomatic negotiations or by any other method of conciliation.

These were the days of "trustful tranquillity" among nations, but the dream exploded, and 500 treaties could not have saved a world in which national rivalry was bitter and crudely managed. The race between education and catastrophe is still on, but thirty years is only a moment in history. Perhaps the next generation will have to restore international tranquillity by some other method than signed contracts sanctified by an international law which is *law* in name only. At any rate, the international hypochondriac does not belong in the teaching profession.

For the time being, however, teachers are faced with the dangers of an extreme cynicism which is bound to be reflected in the attitudes of high school youngsters. Can we deny that modern treaties are "scraps of paper?" Can we successfully develop a sense of responsibility among thinking young people who are aware of the lack of responsibility among nations? I have no answer to these questions, but at whatever cost, the truth must be taught and propaganda must be recognized for what it is. As a young teacher I swallowed propaganda in huge gulps, but *never again*.

There is no moral beyond the challenge to teachers everywhere. Perhaps we will have to say with Wordsworth:

Have I not reason to lament
What man has made of man?

A High School Course in Sociology

WAYNE SWINTON

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With the social science subjects receiving major emphasis in the average secondary school curriculum, or even serving as a core where subject lines have been eliminated, it is not surprising that the past few years have brought about a great development in the field of high school sociology. Introduced at first only by larger schools and even there rather

hesitantly, it has grown in popularity until its inclusion in the curriculum is quite general, and it ranks with civics and economics, if not in frequency, at least in vital significance of content.

Due to the more recent introduction of the subject, sociology has not suffered so extensively as have the other social studies from the inclusion of theory and

other undesirable matter in basic materials through the prevalence of books of the abbreviated college variety. However, this handicap—a very serious one in schools with limited library facilities—has not been entirely lacking in sociology. There are, unfortunately, textbooks on the market today which have but little regard for student reading abilities, social experiences or interests. One factor which has encouraged the continued publication of this sort of book in any branch of social science is the occasional existence of the unprogressive type of school administration which aims to remain inoffensive to various groups in the community by avoiding as much as possible any approach to controversial topics, which, if properly handled, may form the very heart of dynamic social science instruction. While reasonably good books for reference work and for texts in sociology courses have been available for fifteen years, recent times have witnessed important advances and little difficulty should be experienced at present in making an excellent selection.

In consideration of the nature of the subject, probably the most essential part of organizing a course is the establishing of a varied library of reference materials. The fundamental objective of sociology instruction is the development of interest in, and of proper attitudes concerning significant social institutions and problems. A textbook course cannot accomplish this purpose. Dependence must be placed on a wide range of reading matter including a liberal use of current materials and a varied classroom procedure which offers the student an opportunity to give some form of coherent expression to the workings of his mind.

A standard item of equipment for the members of the sociology class of the local high school is an exhaustive bibliography of topics of interest to students in the field. This bibliography is classified, not according to units, which are subject to a considerable degree of shifting, but on the basis of subjects likely to be of vital concern to an active citizen of a democracy. Some of the items included are: poverty, labor problems, conservation, religion and morals, and race. As extensive reading is the heart of the course, this bibliography is a tremendous time-saver to the student.

Some of the units most frequently used are: social institutions, living conditions, industry and labor, education and leisure, and conservation. Obviously these can be broken down into such topics as housing, poverty, immigration, health, crime, and many others, suitable for use as subdivisions or as complete units. A great deal of freedom is allowed the individual in selection of a problem and in his treatment of it. Group effort is encouraged but every care is taken to avoid putting the "lone wolf" into a situation not to his liking. While some form of oral treatment

of social problems under consideration is preferred, ample opportunity is given to the student for written expression of his views. As a general rule there is a tendency to shift from written to oral expression as the semester progresses. This makes it possible for the student to accustom himself gradually, if necessary, to addressing his views to the group, and does not rule out of consideration the individual who is naturally reticent.

While an effective reference library is the background of a course in sociology, current materials do more than anything else to give life to the subject. A study of housing without knowledge of current developments in the field would lose half of its significance. A venture into the investigation of poverty would be academic rather than vital if such matters as the pros and cons of the WPA were neglected.

In spite of their importance, current materials like libraries are not always easily available where school and individual finances are limited.

In an attempt to overcome these difficulties and also to place greater stress on this current phase of the work and relegate the text definitely to a lower rank in importance of available materials, the students are divided into pairs. Each pair purchases a textbook and contributes the equivalent of the cost of a second book to a common fund which is used for the purchase of periodicals and pamphlets. The selection is made by a student committee which carries on quite a diligent investigation of the qualities of various publications. The material thus obtained proves to be a valuable addition to those already available in the library. There is some duplication of library periodicals since it is the feeling of the committee that certain of the printed matter should be at hand at all times.

As a general rule two divisions of the class alternate between library and classroom work during the periods of preparation. Sometimes, the results of the work done is organized into some form of written work. One committee writes a play with a theme of a very definite social nature. There are a number of panel discussions which very naturally vary in quality with the character of the individuals participating. Undoubtedly, the most effective periods have grown out of the presentation of talks by students who then proceed to lead a discussion concerning the subject of the report. Some of these discussions have been vigorous and far more extended than had been anticipated.

Procedures in sociology instruction are almost as numerous as the topics around which they may be built. Experience in our local high school would indicate that they will be effective very largely to the extent that they permit the student to participate actively in the consideration of a problem of vital interest to himself.

Teaching Government

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The problem of presenting government to social studies classes in the eighth and ninth years and at the same time dispensing with the memoriter and rote work of the old methodology is a problem that has proven rather difficult of solution. To an early teen age boy or girl, primarily interested in the figures of his play world, in things of immediate consequence, in short, in what seems to him the applicable parts of the surrounding environment, the theory and practice of government and citizenship is all too often a remote and uninteresting entity. Government becomes something apart from everyday existence, an annoying something to be studied for marks or for parent and teacher approbation. Learning carried on under such conditions might well be dispensed with, for any lasting good that it may do. A consideration of the fact that the majority of children passing their time in the nation's schools are bound and fettered before a situation which is so antagonistic to the spontaneity many of them are capable of showing, would seem to indicate that some experimentation in the methodology of government presentation would be quite profitable for all concerned.

Since the immediate environment is the important factor where junior high school boys and girls are concerned, it would seem logical to try one of two things in presenting government material. These are, either to begin with the immediate environment and stay in that environment, or to go from the immediate environment into an artificially created one. A partial combination of the two possibilities was the technique followed at the Fulton High School with an experimental ninth grade class in civics. Later in the semester, when the technique seemed to be accomplishing what are held to be the desirable ends of social studies instruction by the Regents committee for the investigation of education in the state of New York, a partial variation was tried with a second class, while two classes using more traditional procedure were retained as control groups. In this way there existed some basis of comparison as to the comparative success of the new method in the inculcation of the attitudes and reactions which, it is believed, the social studies should inspire and achieve.

At the first meeting, the experimental group assumed that they were a group of people who had come to live upon a previously uninhabited island, isolated from any contact with the outside world

other than through the medium of an occasional boat which landed temporarily on the island. Basic fertility, but a surrounding wilderness and a total lack of facilities was postulated. Throughout the unit imagination was brought constantly to the fore. The children, enticed by something so foreign to their previous school experience entered into the plan in the manner of a game, and here at the start the first barrier separating the school situation from the play group situation was broken.

There were thirty pupils in the class and in order to assume a fairly large community of 30,000 people, each child imagined himself as representing 1,000 people. Thus, before the class was well under way there was a conception of the idea that one person may speak and act as the representative of any given number. Starting only with the information which has been outlined here the group built, step by step, by discussion, evaluation and re-evaluation, trial and error, analogy and research, a conception of a community from all its angles—social, economic and political. Later, and frequently during the process, the pupils used the local community of Fulton as a laboratory and a basis of comparison and criticism.

It is important to understand that during the greater part of the unit the teacher played a purely passive role, staying in the background as much as possible and leading or pointing the discussion only when absolutely necessary. As the unit progressed intervention became increasingly unnecessary, the class quite clearly and logically going from stage to stage in the construction of its imaginary community. The teacher was assumed, after some prompting on his part, to be an ordinary member of the class and was compelled to ask permission to speak on the floor the same as any other member. A few moments before the end of each period the teacher took over the class to consolidate and transfer the significance of the many ideas which had been advanced. During this time the program for the following day was discussed and suggestions were advanced, although the teacher was careful to keep to the level of suggestions, for homework was not assigned at any time during the whole semester, although the total volume of purposeful work accomplished by the children of the group considerably exceeded any accomplished by the other three groups. When someone wished to find out something, a committee or an individual was appointed by the students to investigate, and eventually to report to the class.

In the early days of the unit it was discovered that the first interests in a new community—or in any community—were those having to do with food, clothing, and shelter, and that human activity basically revolves about these great fundamental necessities. Once settled, the people of the community having built temporary shelters and made makeshift arrangements for food, it was discovered that there was something to be considered beyond merely individual desires. That was the mutual relationships of the group. At once there arose the question of a leader. The debate which followed was a vigorous discussion of the necessity and functions of a leader. This naturally gave rise to the question as to how to choose a leader and the type of personality that would be most desirable. It was decided that the community must have a leader. This involved getting everyone together so that the selection might prove to be generally satisfactory. A group of 30,000 people made quite a crowd when assembled together, but a nearby hill was presumably utilized and the first town meeting was called to order. At once the class ascertained that nothing could be done by an unwieldy gathering and it was decided to elect a small group to represent the whole town in order that something might be accomplished with expediency.

With their flexibility of imagination the class had no difficulty in assigning themselves as thirty representatives, each to represent 1,000 constituents. This placed each member in the dual rôle of being at times the actual 1,000 people and at other times a duly appointed representative.

A leader was elected on the basis of the criteria which had been set up and he was placed in charge of the elected assembly in whom were invested administrative, legislative and judicial functions and powers. The leader presided over the subsequent class meetings which were all conducted on the basis of parliamentary law.

At the first meeting of the representative group it became quite clear that there were a number of things to be accomplished if a livable community was to be established. The question of money arose immediately, as it usually does, and that gave rise to other questions. How could money be acquired? How much was needed? For what items should the money be spent? Throughout the unit it was a constant source of interest to observe the raising of new questions and of the whole series of questions and counter questions which inevitably followed.

The question of taxation finally emerged from the discussion and with it came the question as to whom and what to tax? This being settled to the satisfaction of a majority, it was asked for what specific things would the tax money be spent and what guarantee would there be of wise and economical spending?

A budget came next. The problem then arose as to who had authority to raise the needed money by taxation, and it was decided to inaugurate a regular government set-up. The first question was a negative one. What authority would be withheld from the government? This led logically to a discussion of freedom in government and the class constituted itself as a constitutional convention to draw up the fundamental law of the community. A constitution having been made, the constitutional convention transferred itself into a unicameral legislature for the purpose of making laws for the community.

The pupils referred to their ideas on the budget, and then, after a long discussion, divided the services of government into ten main fields. After some debate it was decided that as a body they knew very little about the ten selected fields of governmental service, so committees were appointed by the class to report upon these fields of governmental activities.

The committee work was done in laboratory periods and in the library, where an abundance of help, books, maps, and various other items were provided. During this time the teacher continued in the capacity of advisor and guide. Suggestions came from the students themselves.

Each committee eventually reported its problem to the class. Each report contained an introduction, statement of the problem, indication of its importance in government, the necessity for it in the community, an accounting of what had been done in other communities, recommendations for the imaginary community, and finally, a bill incorporating these suggestions in the form of a law. Each report was read before the class and freely discussed, analyzed, and altered during its reading by the class acting in their capacity as a legislature. Finally the amended laws were voted on and codified. At the end of the unit all the material including the constitution, committee reports, code of laws, secretary's minutes and various other data were bound together in the form of a book. In addition each pupil kept a personal diary of the things that had been done in class, written as though he were an actual participant in the daily life of the imaginary community.

The class then divided up into the various departments of government they organized. During the next few days each group demonstrated to the rest of the class its functions and procedures. During the legislative meetings, problems of welfare, safety, public policy, public beauty and many others had been discussed and agreement reached.

The groups now placed themselves back in Fulton and for a number of days compared the government that they had set up with the actual system in operation in the community. The plan worked out by the class was modernized and the class constituted itself as the city council of Fulton with the object of seeing

what improvements could be made. This involved visits to many of the departments in town where the children generally found a willingness to cooperate. Following this procedure a week was used for a general tie-up discussion and question period by the instructor.

Various other projects were carried out by individuals and committees, but always at the request of the class and arising as a result of a felt need. One committee, charged with planning the community, modeled it in clay, rather crudely perhaps, but with the accompanying maps and charts they drew they received a comprehensive point of view of not only the desirability of community planning and beautification, but also an appreciation of some of the practical difficulties.

	Legislative Judicial Executive Group	National to Local Group	Local to National Group	Unit Group	Experimental Group
Citizenship attitude on problems occurring in school		28	50	75	86
Citizenship attitude on problems occurring outside school		63	76	75	80
Knowledge of traditional government facts	80	89	79	40	72
Current Event knowledge		85	79	92	26
Reference skills and use of library	78	70	63	78	77
Knowledge of terms basic to the social studies	79	75	70	80	78
Proper democratic reaction	58	43	72	80	87
Final objective test		78	78	80	83.5

(The above marks represent numerical averages and are without significance except as a basis of comparison)

Throughout the unit, interest centered in geography. The class drew its own maps, made whatever materials it required, and maintained its own voluntary treasury for the purchase of supplies. At the end of the semester a dollar remaining in the treasury was sent to the New York Conservation Commission on the motion of the class committee on conservation, which is, perhaps, an indication of the sense of civic responsibility which it had been hoped the course would engender.

The experimental class was an unselected group with abilities ranging from excellent to mediocre. The second class, which had been proceeding under the system of studying units labeled Democracy, Politics, Social Welfare etc., was changed over to the technique of the first group for the units, Taxation, Crime, and Conservation. The two control groups, neither using a textbook, proceeded under two different techniques. One was studying government from the local to the state to the national ap-

proach and the other was using the approach from the national to the state to the local. A fifth group, taught during a previous semester on the basis of the legislative, executive, judicial approach was also used partially in comparison. Unfortunately, no data on a group using a textbook was available.

Various objective tests covering attitudes, local and extra-local, specific knowledge, and several other areas were given to all classes during the semester. A common objective examination was given to all four classes at the end of the semester and while the final results and comparisons can in no sense be held valid or perhaps even slightly indicative due to the lack of standardization and the number of cases covered, still the final results, unreliable as they are, are of some interest:

It must be remembered that none of the marks given in the appended table have any statistical significance. They are on the basis of 100. The tests were fairly simple and based to some degree on those of the New York State Regents Inquiry Committee. No attempt was made at working out any possible correlations.

As a result of the tests given it would seem that the experimental group, on the basis of the classes tested was outstandingly superior in school and extra school citizenship attitudes, and in acceptable democratic reactions. It appeared to be average in knowledge of terms significant to the social studies and in library and reference skills, somewhat under average in traditional knowledge of government facts, and outstandingly poor in current event knowledge. In the final combination test, the average score of the experimental class was higher than any of the other classes tested. The position of the experimental class on the current events test was due to either of two factors. One, the fact that current events were not mentioned or stressed in that class; and two, poor teaching procedure which did not make use of the many opportunities to bring in current events. The introduction of current events, a necessary part of any social studies curriculum, would have made the course more vital.

Apparently then, the experimental procedure was a comparative success where the five groups tested were concerned. The unit group which pursued the experimental method a part of the time came second. Experience in conducting the procedure has, of course, given suggestions for many future refinements of technique.

If the experimental procedure were to be followed another year it would be advisable to dispense with the idea of the isolated island and assume the class as being located in our own local environment in pioneer times and building the procedure on that basis. Still better, perhaps, would be the setting up of one class of each kind for the sake of comparison.

The great danger in presenting material in this manner is the tendency to eliminate definite and painstaking transfer of training where attitudes and similar objects are concerned. Second, is the tend-

ency of the teacher to "coast" while the children are doing all the work. Of course, "any chain is only as strong as its weakest link," and very definitely the teacher is a necessary link in this procedure.

The International Forum

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(Concluded from the last issue)

MANUFACTURING

Although manufacturing may be said to be almost in its infancy in Peru, it is at present progressing at a rapid rate. Cotton and woolen factories have acquired a large degree of importance. Coarse and simple fabrics as well as printed goods and fine cloths of many kinds are manufactured by the cotton mills. The woolen business, besides producing rough woolen materials of different varieties, now also furnishes cloth of excellent quality of a type suitable for men's and women's outer wear, which, until recently, had to be imported from abroad. Of more recent origin are silk mills, there being nine in operation today in the country, which supply varied silk and artificial silk articles.

Typical of the older established industries are flour milling, breweries, soap-making, tanneries, and saw-mills, all of which operated at full capacity throughout 1938, in many cases working overtime. The same is true of the newer manufacturing enterprises, which include glass and glassware, cement, rubber goods, paints, paper, and canning.

For purposes of comparison, it may be pointed out that, while in 1935 the new manufacturing undertakings which came into existence amounted to 30, by 1937 the corresponding number had reached 335.

In the city of Lima alone the total number of factory hands is about 75,000, all of whom are enrolled in the books of the Bureau of Social Insurance.

FINANCES AND BANKING

The increasing yield from government revenues in Peru is shown in the following comparison between the returns from some of the principal sources of national income in 1932 and in 1937.

	1932 (Soles)	1937 (Soles)
State Monopolies	9,263,204	13,851,268
Direct Taxation	15,822,677	42,069,511
Customs	14,832,353	38,119,127
Tax on consumption	30,333,450	44,376,785

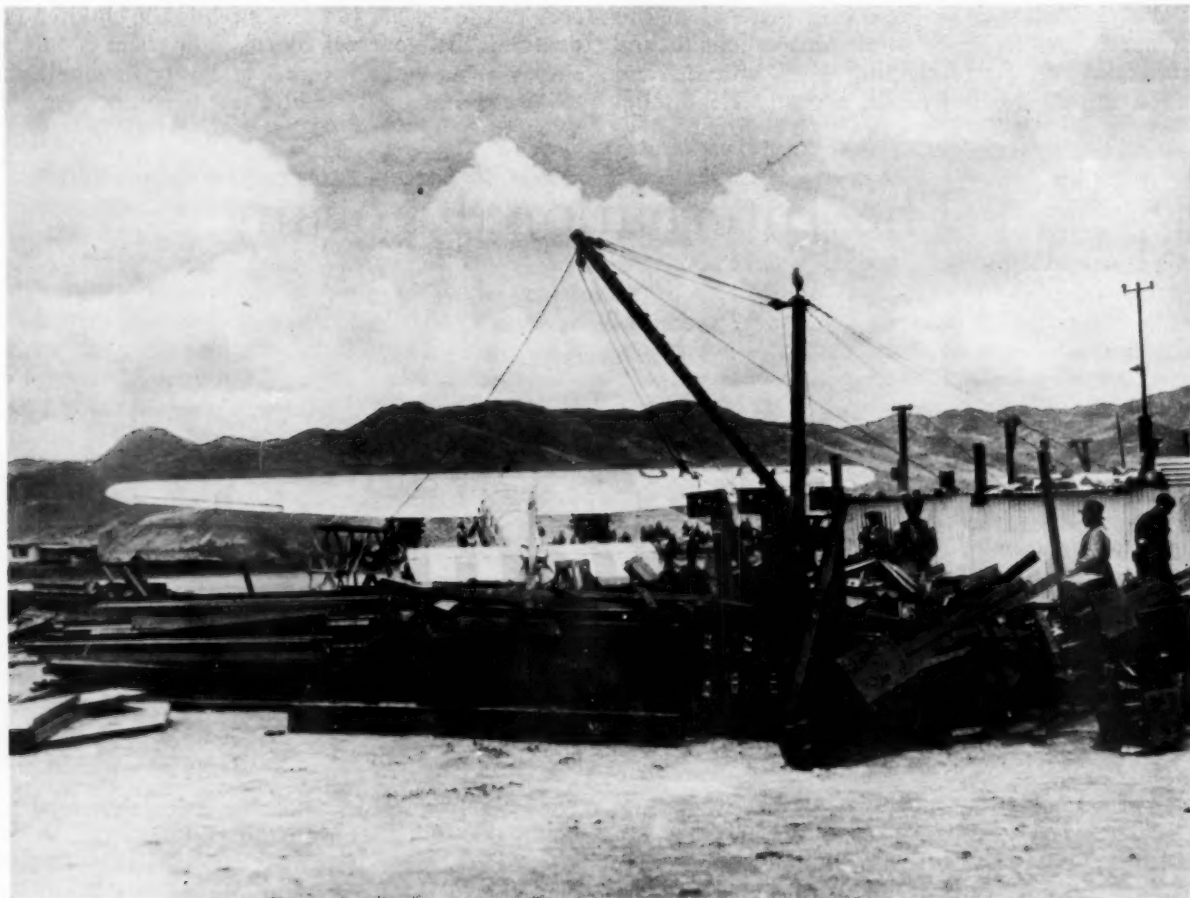
In 1932 total government revenues amounted to 91,000,000 soles. During the first ten months of 1938 those same revenues totalled 143,000,000 soles, the increase represented being at the rate of over 80% in the six year interval.

Banking conditions throughout the country reflect the prevailing prosperity. Bank deposits grew, from 102,063,831 soles in 1932, to 290,562,079 soles in 1938. Peru's banking facilities are only reasonably well developed in proportion to the existing flourishing situation and to the possibilities which the country holds. Additional banking capital could be profitably employed. In this connection, it is interesting to note the part played by special banks in the development of specific industries. An agricultural bank has done much on behalf of farming throughout the nation. An industrial bank, created in 1936 under government auspices, increased its loans to industrialists from 2,040,343 soles at the end of its first year's operation to 4,362,764 soles in 1938. At present a mining bank is under process of evolution.

The foundations of the banking and credit systems of the nation are sound and banking operations are conducted with entire security. There is no exchange control of any kind and all foreign exchange transactions are freely carried out.

AVIATION

During the course of this sketch the inter-relation



UNLOADING MINING EQUIPMENT, COTABAMBAS MINING COMPANY, A GOLD MINING CONCERN LOCATED NEAR COTABAMBAS, DEPARTMENT OF APURIMAC, SOUTHERN PERU

between the communication facilities and the economic development of the nation has been repeatedly stressed, but no mention has yet been made of air transportation, which has contributed importantly to the progress of Peru. The hold which aviation has taken there may be gauged from these facts: The number of passengers flown within the country increased from 13,000 in 1933 to 34,751 in 1937; in the same period the number of kilometers flown grew from 1,750,000 to 3,500,000; and the mail, parcel post, and freight carried by air, which in 1933 amounted to 88,000 kilos, reached 1,532,000 kilos in 1937.

Commercially, Peru is today the first air-power in South America and the seventh in the world. For a country with its kind of topography, aviation has been a Godsend in many respects. The consideration of what flying has done to the time that separated Lima, on the coast, from Iquitos, the jungle's commercial center, will illustrate how consequential have been its effects. Under most favorable conditions it formerly used to take 40 days to travel from one city to the other. Today a bi-weekly air service connects

them in two days, actual flying time being eight hours.

LIMA, THE CAPITAL

Lima, the capital founded by the Spanish conquerors of Peru, has ancient tradition and fame. Gentle of climate, eight miles away from the sea, on the shore of the River Rimac, and flanked towards the east by San Crisobal Hill, Lima was erected around the Plaza de Armas (Main Square), on which stood both its government palace and its great cathedral, as is still the case today. The borders of the town did not extend very far from that plaza, but charming houses with large patios and finely carved balconies were built, a great many beautiful churches arose, and frequent squares of Spanish style relieved the monotony of the narrow streets. During the period of Spain's sway, Lima was the center of social, artistic, and intellectual life in the colonial domain. It produced the first newspaper in South America as well as the first university of the entire American continent. The bounds of the old city are clearly outlined by its definite architectural characteristics. Outside those bounds, the gradually modified

architecture reveals the dribbling efforts of the town to unfold itself through the first century of independence, efforts which only came sharply to life in recent years, with the sustained and uniform flowering of asphalted avenues, which press vigorously towards the sea in various directions, new parks and modern residences sprouting along their sides as if by magic. At the end of these various avenues are now gay beaches and garden resorts, which have also suddenly come into bloom, acquiring new vitality from the city's asphalt rays.

The Lima of today, then, offers an intriguing contrast between the old and the new, in some respects, notwithstanding the difference in historical and geographical background, probably somewhat like the picture presented by New York in the epoch when it began to expand residentially beyond the narrow streets which still exist in its present business section and which once constituted the entirety of the city. The United States was at that time passing through a period of evolution which resembles the one that Peru is witnessing today. Railroad tracks were then

accomplishing for one nation what motor highways are now doing for the other.

Attractive as are the modern residential parts of Lima and its suburbs, they lack the quaint fascination of the old section, which is today becoming the business and shopping district of the city. Although an occasional office or apartment building surprises one by its height and new lines, old Lima still retains, for the most part, the typical atmosphere which gave it enchantment in younger days. It is true that patios of earlier time are being turned into commercial bazaars and that drawing-rooms of another era now serve as restaurants, or even as garages.

As a rule, however, the evolution has been carried out with taste, retaining the general symmetry and the impression of age. Aroused into activity, the narrow streets present a picturesque sight. Everywhere evidences of another age appear side by side with expressions of modernity. Coming out of a store dealing in antiquities and antiques of Inca and colonial times, one may find, next door, a shop appointed in the newest manner and displaying the latest styles.



A VIEW OF ALFONSO UGARTE AVENUE, LIMA, PERU



THE ROCK FOREST OF PERU—NEAR "WIDOW'S PASS"

A short distance from a hotel of the most modern type are found churches centuries old. The ancient Senate of Peru is only a few yards away from the magnificent new Congress Building. After an afternoon at a colorful but uncomfortable bull-ring, which shows no signs of youth, the evening may be spent in a motion picture theater of the latest pattern where the most recent and best motion pictures are shown. The old cathedral which holds Pizarro's bones stands at right angles with the outstandingly modern government palace which was lately reconstructed on the site that it always occupied.

Leaving the aged cloisters of San Marcos University, a student may witness a game at a splendid new stadium, not far away. The old arcades, which on two sides line the Plaza de Armas are separated only by a ten minute walk from the glaringly new ones of modern Plaza San Martin. In everything there is a balance between the old and the new, even in the spirit of the city. A bull-fighting "aficionado" is often also an ardent football or basketball fan. The fact that carnival time is still celebrated in Lima, or that colorful religious processions are held through the streets, much as they were over a hundred years ago, does not preclude having a country club with a golf course or building a handsome new track for horse-racing. Lima is under an exciting process of coördination and, like the rest of the nation today, it is decidedly alive and progressing.

TOURIST CONSIDERATIONS

To anyone who has found enough interest in the foregoing description of Peru to peruse it up to this point, it must have become obvious that the country offers exceptional attractions to the tourist, not alone the tourist traveling exclusively for pleasure, but also the one who is business-minded or scientifically inclined.

The primitive simplicity and proverbial hospitality of the people, the picturesque villages, the artistic and melodious folklore, the incomparable blending of color in the heavens, the healthfulness of the climate, all inspire pleasure and admiration. In addition, the growing cities, the everchanging landscape as one travels from one end of the country to the other, the magnificence of the Andes, and the fascinating power of the jungle, not only impress the seeker after beautiful and quaint scenery, but also bring constant suggestion of interesting possibility for study and enterprise.

In the established communities an atmosphere of pensive sadness, reminiscent of patriarchal times, blends with modern activity and arrests the tourist. Besides Lima and its port, Callao, which now has a splendid system of docks and piers, worthy of special mention, among the cities are Arequipa in southern Peru, the white city of sunshine and limpid skies which stands at the foot of Mount Misti; Trujillo, that lordly town which recalls scenes of Extremadura; Cuzco, called the "Archaeologic Capital of South America," cradle of the empire of the Incas, still retaining priceless mementos of an original civilization, such as the Egyptian, the Greek, or the Roman, as well as relics of the colonial period; Machu Picchu, ruin city of gigantic mountains, which preserves the vestiges of its old splendor; Cajamarca, which witnessed the death of the last Inca emperor; Puno, on the shores of Lake Titicaca, from the waters of which, according to legend, emerged two Inca sovereigns; and Ica, which holds mineral springs that have extraordinary curative qualities.

The archaeological geography of Peru presents to science an ever increasing source of interest. Viewed against the splendor of their natural background, the Inca ruins appeal strongly to the spirit of those who seek historic emotions. The fortresses, the temples, and the other existing architectural remains furnish eloquent evidence of the heights which the culture of the Incas had attained in social organization, economic administration, arts, politics, and the observance of justice.

Of the scenic wonders of the nation perhaps none surpass what is known as the Rock Forest of Peru. A highway which goes from Lima across the Andes, by the Widow's Pass, and through the great Cerro de Pasco mining region, runs along this enchanted oasis, which encloses an area of about 25 square miles at

an altitude of over 15,000 feet and within sight of the famous Mount Pasco. As one penetrates its labyrinth of rock formations, surprise after surprise awaits. Huge blocks of petrified fauna, dislocated manifestations of nature, give the impression of enormous faces, human silhouettes, or animals, fashioned in the most originally spectacular and absurdly capricious manner, which, on clear nights, with the moon shining on them, or during a thunder storm, assume weird and fantastically barbarous aspects.

Aware of the advantages of making Peru better known and desirous of furnishing adequate accommodation for tourists throughout the country, the Peruvian government, as supplement to the general highway plan of the nation, has adopted a hotel construction project. An investment of 4,000,000 soles has been authorized. In an effort to encourage the

building of new hotels and the improvement of those in existence, the government contributes 25 per cent of the capital required, the contribution taking the form of a mortgage on the building and land for a period of 10 years, the mortgage lapsing at the end of that time if the hotel has been in uninterrupted operation from the date the loan was negotiated. Moreover, state or municipal lands are sold for hotel construction purposes on the basis of 10 annual installments, the constructors being exempted from the payment of customs duties on all building material imported in one single consignment, as well as exonerated from payment of rural, urban, and municipal taxes during 10 years. By means of these measures, the comforts available to those who travel through Peru are being improved.

Some Methods of Teaching the Social Studies in Hawaii

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As I have greatly profited by reading about the methods and procedures used by other teachers of THE SOCIAL STUDIES, I thought others might profit by reading of the methods I have found helpful in my courses with Hawaiian young people. These methods have been a gradual growth through experience with classes and have been tested out in work with the students. The aim has been to enrich the class period and to organize the program in such a way that the class members will participate in a larger way in the class work. We have sought to get away as far as possible from the question and answer method and to guide the students in an adventure of learning. Let me list the various methods and activities. They will illustrate what I mean by this activity program.

1. *The Class Bulletin Board.* On one side of the room we have a large Canec bulletin board. The board is divided into four sections: (a) News of the United States, (b) News of the Orient, (c) News of Europe, and (d) Maps. The students are responsible for keeping the board covered with newspaper clippings, pictures, cartoons, graphs and maps. They are encouraged to draw original cartoons either illustrating some incident in current history or in the special units before the class. They are also encouraged to draw graphs or to collect pictures that have to do with the topic under discussion. Special credit is given for the work and the best ones are displayed

on the bulletin board. The teacher checks all material before it is placed on the board to make sure it is worth posting. Most of the material is changed each week to keep the boards up to date and to keep interest in the display. If some material seems to be worth a longer display, it is kept up for a longer period. Between classes the boys often stand about the board, studying the display. For the benefit of the whole school my classes maintain a special bulletin board in the library. Since only the best cartoons, graphs, and maps are displayed on this board, the students feel honored when their work appears on it. Bulletin board committees are appointed for a certain period and are checked on the kind of displays they arrange.

2. *Class Reports.* One day a week is given over to student reports in class. The reports are based on the general topic being covered by the class at the time. Material for the reports is obtained from the reference books and magazines in the library. No boy is permitted to use material for his report taken from the class text. The library is kept open at off periods so each student will get a chance to prepare his material for the class reports. Each one is given his choice as to whether he desires to read his report or to give it orally. An emphasis is placed on quality rather than quantity of material. With the younger boys an effort is made to give each boy a chance to report at one class period while with the

older groups four boys take up the whole period. Sometimes instead of making the reports on the unit of study, they are devoted to current history. In such a case the student cannot get his report from the weekly readers used in class but must search for new material in magazines or daily papers.

3. *Map Making.* When a certain period is being covered the students are asked to prepare maps illustrating that special period. At times outline maps are used; again the students are expected to draw their own outlines. However, in the latter case the students are permitted to trace their outlines if they so desire, as we feel the benefit of free map drawing is limited. The best maps received are displayed on the bulletin board in order to give incentive to the best effort.

4. *Source Material for Class.* The library has many texts in addition to the one used in class, as well as encyclopedias and reference books. For a long time I had difficulty in getting the students to use these books. Then I hit on the idea of giving special credit to the students bringing to class reference material found outside of the class text. The students are encouraged to check out of the library other texts on the subject and to give the reports from them in the class in order to enrich the material of the topic under consideration. The plan has worked well, and naturally the class discussions have grown in interest and in richness.

5. *Individual Note Books.* Each student is required to keep an individual note book. In it he is to write the reports he makes in class, to write notes on class discussions, to draw maps, cartoons, and graphs in line with the class topics, to paste current history clippings on national and world affairs and to record class assignments. At frequent intervals the teacher calls in the notebooks in order to check the material. Those showing special ingenuity and skill in working out the note books are mentioned in class. The best books are brought before the class and displayed with the hope that the others will get ideas for their own books. Many times enterprising students will give new suggestions to the teacher of ways the note books can be worked out.

6. *Motion Pictures.* During the year a number of moving pictures are shown which deal with the topics under discussion in class. A very rich program of movies is now available to the public through the federal government, through local business firms and through picture producers. The pictures that show the way certain products are manufactured are of real educational value. Many films depicting periods in history are now to be secured from moving picture companies. The national government will send a list of its films upon request. Many of these films are given following the dinner hour in order to give a larger group of students the chance to see them. The

time has come when some of the students may make their own movies and show them to the class.

7. *Word Studies.* We spend some time studying the more difficult words found in the texts which deal with the subject being studied. The modern history books carry a great many difficult words, headings, references, titles, and subjects. More often than many teachers realize, the students fail to comprehend the ideas expressed because they do not understand the words used. Many of the new texts have difficult words listed at the end of chapters or in a supplement to the text. In many cases a teacher must make out his own word lists. These should be studied along with the material in which they are to be found. Sometimes I require the students to bring in a list of definitions written out. These are used as a basis for discussion in class. Again difficult words are looked up in class, the students being required to bring their dictionaries with them. In the note books which the students keep, word lists are worked out and graded by the teacher from time to time. Nothing will show the culture and comprehension of the student more in after life than his use of words with fine shades of meaning.

8. *Testing.* We use both the standardized tests, usually published by the author of the text and others made by the instructor. More emphasis is placed on the essay tests as we feel they are based directly on the material being emphasized by the instructor and because they help the student test his comprehension of the subject. They also make it possible for the student to express in his own words his ideas on the subject. Diagnostic tests are used at the end of the year so the instructor can see how his class is progressing in comparison with other groups on the mainland.

9. *Field Trips.* The firms and organizations in Honolulu have shown a keen interest in the field trips that have been arranged. The government agencies, the manufacturing houses, and the business firms have opened their doors to our classes. The managers have spent much time in conducting the boys through their plants. We have found that a study of the industry or the agency before the visit makes the trip of much greater interest. The students are encouraged to ask questions and to satisfy their curiosity about the institution. In this way the students get an inside view of their town, the welfare institutions, the business houses, the factories, the city and territorial government agencies. We find that afternoon trips are of value since the students are not hurried in the visits and since toward the end of the day the class interferes less with the work of the companies. After a field trip has been made, a period is devoted to a discussion of the trip. Since all of the class generally cannot go on the trips, the members who do go report to the others of their

experiences. Arrangements are always made in advance for the trips so the firms will be expecting the group and so that a guide will be provided.

10. *Community Leaders as Aids.* Very often community leaders can be called in for information when certain topics are before the class. If the class happens to be studying transportation, some leader in the transportation business can be invited to meet with the class. If the parole system is being discussed a city parole officer can be invited to the class. I have been surprised over and over again to see the willingness of business and professional people to assist in the school program.

I have outlined here some of the main methods being used in my classes. These have been tested and

found of value. They have been used with the idea that the more the students participate in the class work the more their minds will be impressed with the information and the history involved. I have had impressed on me the old truth that a teacher should not do anything for a pupil that he can do himself. I am also impressed with the thought that learning comes through pupil activity. The job of the teacher is to provide situations where the pupil may actively share in the search for knowledge and add to his experience. In this way the class becomes less a burden and more of an adventure. You who have read this please record your experiences so we may be able to read about them and profit by them.

The Teacher of the Social Studies

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The rather universal demand which is being made upon the social sciences for solutions of the evils which today threaten democratic civilization thrusts upon these sciences the responsibility for bringing about social, political, and economic stability. A careful student of the social sciences has stated that:

The social studies must assume the burden of preserving and improving the democratic society to which we are committed . . . From a study of social trends fair prediction can be made of the society of the future, the society in which, perforce, our students must live.¹

An outstanding authority in the social studies in an address before the Department of Superintendents of the National Education Association stated that had the schools of the past generation provided adequate instruction in the political, economic and social affairs, the nation might have dealt more effectively with the crisis brought about by the depression.²

Thus is the responsibility for improvement of social conditions charged specifically to the quality of instruction in the social sciences. Educators everywhere are recognizing the growing significance of the social sciences in providing information leading to solutions of social problems, and no group is more aware of the added burdens being thrust upon them than are the teachers of the social studies. In recognizing their new responsibilities teachers are setting

themselves the task of finding out how their instruction in the social sciences can be made more effective than it has been in the past. Through year books and bulletins they are becoming familiar with new curriculum content and instructional method. Through the work of such organizations as the National Council on Social Studies they have sought to improve their professional abilities. Many recent studies relative to content and method of social studies have been made. The National Education Association has recently completed a 250-page study called, "Improving Social Studies Instruction"³ to which nearly two thousand teachers of recognized ability supplied facts and opinions on the teaching of the social studies.

Through careful consideration of the data provided by these studies it is found that very definite demands are being made of the teachers of the social sciences—demands which seek a new and better equipped social science teacher.

In all the studies so far made relative to the improvement of social studies instruction, one of the first and most fundamental demands which such instruction is making is that the teachers attempt to reach the objectives of the school through participation in actual affairs of life and not through the teaching of certain specific rules of group relations from textbooks dealing with material foreign to the learner's studies has changed. The social studies have from the beginning aimed at good citizenship. This is still the fundamental purpose. The difference lies in the different methods of attempting to achieve

¹ W. R. Davis, *Social Science Instruction and the New Curriculum*, Introduction by A. W. Birdwell (Dallas, Texas: Turner Company, 1936).

² Glenn Frank address delivered at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendents, National Education Association.

³ "Improving Social Studies Instruction," *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, XV (November 1937), 187-258.

good citizenship. Poring over rules of good citizenship outlined in a textbook written by an author who knew nothing of the local problems confronting the students who studied his book, has tended to isolate social science study from practical affairs of life, and has tended to develop the general attitude that the mere knowledge of the rules of citizenship is all that is necessary. Such instruction has all too often ignored the principle that habits of citizenship behavior can only be built up in the same way that other habits are built up—by continuous, purposeful practice. Students cannot learn the rules of good citizenship today and be good citizens tomorrow. They become good citizens tomorrow only by practicing good citizenship today, and every day.

It, therefore, demanded of the new social science instructor that he ask himself: "Just what effect should my social science instruction have upon the behavior of the students coming under my instruction and upon the social attitudes and activities of the people of the community in which I teach?" To answer this question correctly the teacher of the new social sciences must see that social science instruction develops within the pupil a feeling of personal responsibility with reference to the improvement of conditions in the school and community and should provide opportunities for him to give expression to this feeling by allowing him to participate in the activities of the school and community. The pupil must develop a community pride which will create in him a desire to see his home community as an important part of the larger social order. He must be large-group conscious and not provincial. He must learn to choose wisely the activities in which he engages, whether activities of work, study, or leisure. The people of the community will then be made to realize that the school is in reality a social institution functioning in such a way that the welfare of society is more effectively cared for. Instruction in the new social sciences can no longer be impervious to the demands made upon these sciences by a rapidly changing civilization. As Dr. Beard states in his book, *A Charter for the Social Sciences*, the school must now be responsive to

the requirements and demands of the society which sustains it, the society in which it flourishes—the requirements and demands of a world actually wrestling with problems and insisting upon answers.⁴

Teachers of the social sciences may thus capitalize upon the interests and experiences of the learner. Being able to connect his social science study up with real life situations, the pupil will have a stronger incentive for study.

⁴ C. A. Beard, *A Charter for the Social Sciences* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons; 1932).

But the demand that the social science teacher be concerned in his teaching with local community problems does not deprive the pupil of the opportunity of studying conditions on a national or even a world basis. Beginning with the home conditions merely serves as a starting point familiar to the learner. The fact is soon revealed to the pupil that factors influencing the local situation may have to be sought in distant regions. As Dr. Beard says:

It is not only in and through certain domestic institutions, political, economic, and social that the citizen lives and discharges his obligations. American society operates on a world stage. Civic instruction must reckon with that reality. Even internal history is not made solely by internal forces.⁵ . . . In other words, the domestic scene must be fitted into the world scene.⁶

It is demanded of the teacher of the new social sciences, therefore, that he be alert to discover leads from local problems into world relations. While the pupil's interest in social science may arise out of a local situation, the teacher must see to it that the pupil soon realizes that an accurate consideration of local conditions requires an understanding of the relation of the local to distant situations which have bearing upon them.

The new social sciences constitute a unified whole, consequently, the teacher of these sciences cannot deal with them as if each belonged in a separate compartment. The specialist in the field of research may still find it convenient to compartmentalize the content of the social sciences, but in social science instruction there can no longer be isolated segments called civics, sociology, history, economics, etc. Heretofore, each of the phases of social science has been taught as if it is an independent body of material complete in itself. Such instruction failed to develop within the learner the ability to see any relations between the social studies in school and real life situations. Speaking at a recent meeting of the National Education Association Dr. Oberholtzer of Houston, Texas, declared that what we need is a new dynamic life-centered curriculum for the public schools;⁷ and before the convention closed there was adopted a resolution commending the 1938 year book of the Association for its emphasis upon the need for a dynamic curriculum centered in the realities and coordinating school activities with the agencies of social life.⁸ But life is not made up of economic situations at one time, sociological situations at another, citizenship situations at still another. Each life situation has elements of economics, elements of

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 48.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 51.

⁷ *Official Report*, American Association of School Administrators, 1938.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 190.

sociology, elements of citizenship, etc. and for a teacher to teach one phase of social science as an independent body of subject matter is to dissect the body of social science into lifeless divisions from which nothing but disintegration can result.

What the new social sciences are demanding then is a teacher who, in his instruction, can assemble the disintegrated parts of the materials of the social sciences into one body of subject matter integrated about and pertaining to contemporary life problems. Such a teacher cannot be merely a subject matter specialist, concentrating upon a narrow phase of social science with little or no realization of its kinship with the various other phases. Relative to this point, Dr. Kefauver of Stanford University states that "a teacher with a major in economics without study in other divisions of the social studies will lack the ability to deal constructively with social problems since the economic represents only one phase of most social questions."⁹ In fact, "practically all social questions have a social welfare phase, an economic phase, a political phase, and a historical phase. Consequently, a teacher dealing with these issues has need of broader training to consider the different aspects of social problems."¹⁰

The new social sciences demand that the teacher have the ability to think and reason. Thinking and reasoning are dependent upon a broad general education. Dr. Hutchins of Chicago University has stated that the purpose of the schools should be to teach people to think rather than to produce narrow specialists in any one field of subject matter. Illustrating what he meant by broad general education, he said that what we need is not more chemists; we need more educated chemists. The chemist, according to Dr. Hutchins, is a narrow specialist while the educated chemist recognizes and appreciates all the interrelations and overlappings of chemistry with other phases of subject matter and of life. Applying his illustration to the demands of the new social science field, it can be said that "What we need is not more teachers for the narrow separate phases of social science. We need educated teachers—teachers who can integrate the divergent phases of social science into one meaningful body of subject matter." According to a statement by Dr. Albert Einstein, in an address delivered at the Harvard Tercentenary,

The thing that should always stand in the foreground is the development of the capacity to think, and not the acquisition of specialized knowledge. If you know the fundamental methods of your profession, and have learned to think, you will be better able to deal with ad-

vancing and changing conditions; be more capable of adapting yourself to them, than the man whose education has been based on the accumulation of detailed knowledge.¹¹

Thinking may be defined as seeing relations between things. This ability requires a wide range of interests—a wider range, in fact, than is found in a teacher's major and minor subject matter fields. Teachers who cannot, or who do not think, can not teach pupils to think. This point is well illustrated in a statement of a recent college graduate who said:

I took every history course that was offered in our high school in a classroom from which I could see a memorial of a historical period of great significance and during the entire four years not once was reference made to the memorial by either teachers or pupils. In a later course, not in the field of history, I learned that to the memorial, which had meant nothing to me in my entire previous school experience, could be connected the whole history of the United States, and even the history of the entire world.

It is not enough for the pupils to learn the *what*, the *when*, and the *where*; they must also learn the *why* and the *how*. It is not enough for the pupils to be concerned with what *was* and what *is*; they must be concerned with what *ought* to be. Consideration of what ought to be is necessary in order to prevent the development in the minds of the pupils the idea that what *is*, is right, the attitude which has often martyred the innovator and retarded the progress of civilization for centuries. The new social sciences demand that the teacher know the *why* and the *how* of conditions so that he can help improve conditions. One of the purposes of the new social science instruction is to reveal to the pupils their responsibility to their own generation and to future generations. Social science aims to develop within the pupil a desire to leave society better than he found it. This requires study, thinking, and planning—such as only well informed, broad-minded, conscientious teachers can do.

Consideration of the *why* and the *how* of social conditions provokes controversy, probably the greatest factor in stimulating productive thinking. According to Dr. Walter E. Myer, writing in a recent issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association*, a fundamental question which the teacher of the new social sciences must answer is whether the schools will train young citizens to come to grips with the swiftly moving social problems. Will these teachers

⁹ Grayson N. Kefauver, *The Curriculum Journal* VIII (May, 1937), 195. Published by Society for Curriculum Study, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹ Dr. Einstein, quoted in *Christian Science Monitor*, December 23, 1936. Statement taken from an address originally designed for the Harvard Tercentenary Celebration.

teach citizens to deal effectively with controversial questions by giving them supervised practice in that activity? Or will they stand aside, shaking off responsibility* and allowing untrained citizens to deal with the great problems of public life? . . . Everywhere the citizen finds dispute. If the school has trained him for actual work of dealing with controversial questions, it has helped to make him a good citizen. . . . If civic training in the school does not include practice in working with controversial issues and in handling them independently and sensibly, it might as well be omitted from the curriculum.¹²

Another very important demand upon the teacher which the new social sciences are making is that of flexibility in his instructional practices. While the need for a definite schedule of classes and courses will no doubt continue to exist for some time, the teacher must not allow his schedule to become so fixed that he can not vary from it. Life experiences do not happen according to schedule and a teacher who finds himself a slave to a specific procedure will be unable to take advantage of the interests that come up unexpectedly from time to time. The teacher of

¹² Walter E. Myer, "Notes on Civic Education," *Journal of National Education Association* XXVI (March, 1937).

the new social sciences will *use* a schedule but will not allow it to use him. For the teacher to turn aside from time to time to consider actual social situations and conditions gives life and interest to school work and affords the teacher and pupils opportunities to see relations between what is going on in the world and what they are trying to do at school.

Finally, the teacher of the new Social Sciences must express humility in his attitude toward his pupils and toward his work—such humility as will make him a seeker for knowledge along with his pupils. In the classroom or on the field trip he must remain in the background. He must be apparently the least prominent individual in the group. Keeping himself in the background, he will be able to cultivate confidence within his pupils; and allowing his pupils to connect life situations with their school work, he will be able to capitalize upon the immediate interests growing out of the pupils' recognition that their home community has many very definite connections with other communities of the world. Thus, the type of teacher demanded by the new social sciences is the teacher who stimulates his pupils to search for information—not for information's sake alone but for the purpose of bringing about the proper adjustment between the individual and the demands of a complex social order.

The Use of Local Statistics in High School Courses in Sociology and Social Problems

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Every teacher who has become at all familiar with the reports of the Census Bureau and of state statistical organizations has undoubtedly realized that there is a wealth of local statistical information hidden away in these reports which ought to be used in the sociology and social problems courses, but which is difficult to use in the form available. Every teacher is also aware that the average course in the social studies without the use of such concrete illustrative material is apt to be merely a collection of "cloudy vaporizings" and "hot air" in the minds of most students. Further, every teacher who is at all curious concerning the sociological charac-

teristics of his community is aware of a rather profound personal "blind spot" in so far as his actual specific knowledge of the sociology of his community is concerned.

Few teachers can read such books as Lynd's *Middletown*, and *Middletown in Transition*, Fry's *American Villagers*, Lorimer and Osborn's *Dynamics of Population*, and the pamphlets, Independent League of Women Voters, *Know Your Town*, and Bureau of Education, *Community Score Card*, without being inspired by a desire to obtain similar information about the particular community in which

(Continued on page 27)

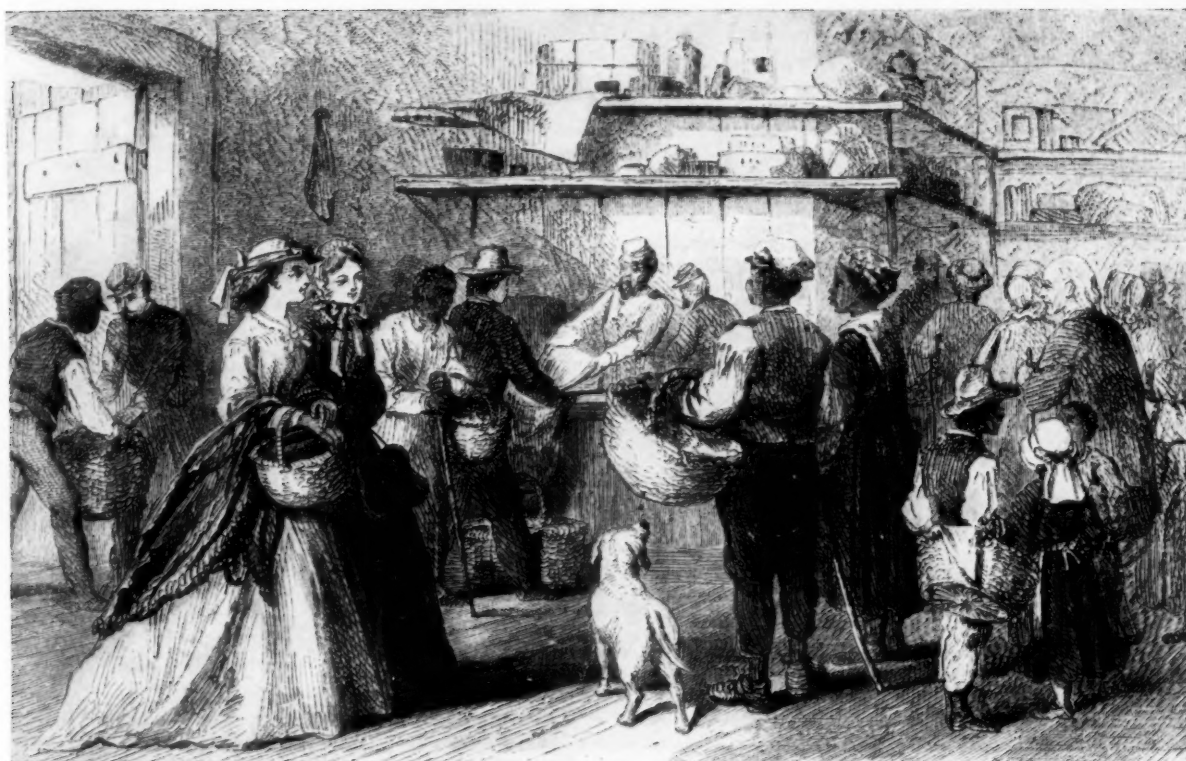
ILLUSTRATED SECTION

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THE RECONSTRUCTION PERIOD



At the end of the Civil War the South was poverty stricken. Property had been destroyed, Confederate stocks and bonds were worthless, banks failed, factories were in ruins, and the two million dollars invested in slaves was wiped out. The misery was increased by the bad crops of 1865. Women and children formerly in good circumstances went about begging for bread. Farmers and planters were land poor; they had the soil but no labor, equipment, seeds or stock. Relief agencies were at once established to feed the people, both black and white. In the border states and in New York charitable organizations shipped great quantities of supplies to the South. The Freedman's Bureau also distributed food. This illustration shows the Union soldiers in the process of handing out food supplies to blacks and whites.

THE RECONSTRUCTION PERIOD

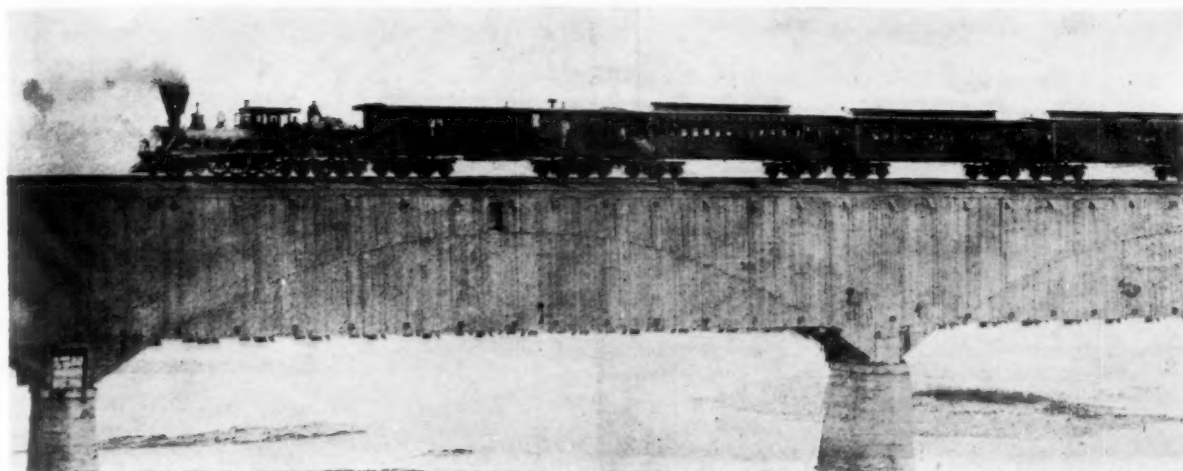


In the days of Reconstruction following the Civil War, former slaves and lower class whites were raised into public positions of responsibility and trust for which they were ill-suited. Under the resulting orgy of mismanagement and social upheaval, the old master class of the population in the South writhed in indignation. One method they resorted to in order to overthrow the upstarts was the Ku Klux Klan, a secret ritualistic organization whose members rode forth at night in grotesque disguises to frighten the Negroes or to strike terror into the scalawags and carpetbaggers. This picture is a warning issued by local unit of the Ku Klux organization.

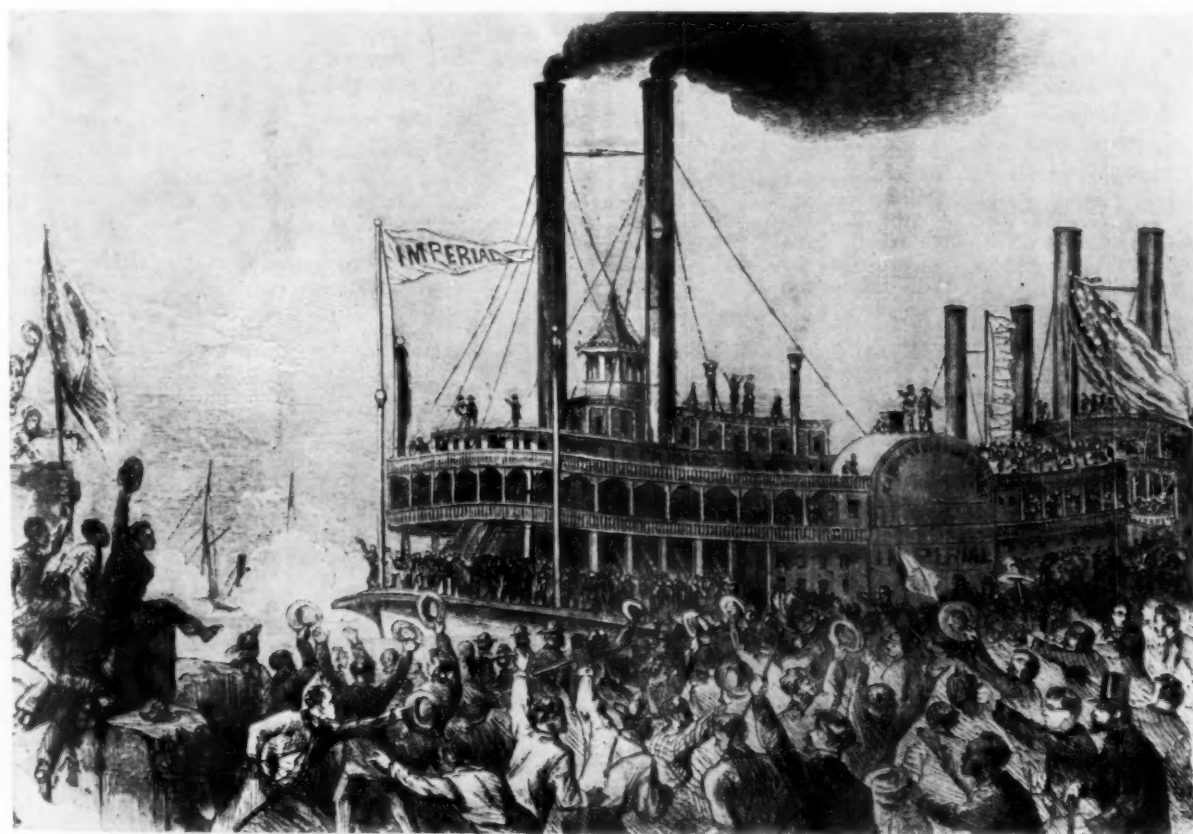


Cartoon of the campaign and election of 1868. Seymour and Blair, the Democratic candidates, are attempting to derail the reconstruction train of Grant and Colfax on the "Republican Railway"; John A. Dix is aboard the train; General McClellan wishes he was on the train. From the original in the Historical Society of Pennsylvania.

THE RECONSTRUCTION PERIOD



During the Civil War railroad construction in the South was halted, but in the North a great stimulus was given to laying the iron rails. The decade 1860 to 1870 saw the total mileage of the nation almost doubled. During the same period the outstanding event in railroad history was the completion of the first transcontinental road. This illustration shows a train of the period 1860-1870.



This picture shows the arrival of the *Imperial* at New Orleans at the close of the Civil War. It is typical of the river boats of this period. Note the decks crowded with people, the great side-wheel, and the construction of the boat.

THE RECONSTRUCTION PERIOD



A typical scene in a western mining town during this period. Note the wagon with ten mules. Such vehicles were used to bring in supplies to the communities of miners. The scene is from a photograph taken in "Last Chance Gulch," now Helena, Montana. Courtesy of the Northern Pacific Railway.

(Continued from page 22)

they are living.¹ But too often when one commences to tackle the census reports, the problem of sorting out from the mass of data available those particular items which are of local significance seems so overwhelming that the effort is dropped. The projects which are to be described hereafter have suffered from just such labor pains.

In addition to the feeling of helplessness which overcomes the teacher on beginning such an effort there is the even greater problem of what to do with the information after it is acquired. The average student when confronted with a mass of raw statistical data unaccompanied by a clear cut explanation of what to do becomes amazingly helpless and stubborn about attempting what seems to be a hopeless task. Yet to attempt to interpret all the data orally requires an excessive amount of class time.

After a number of years of experimentation the writer believes that he has hit upon an effective solution of both of these problems: (1) an orderly and systematic plan capable of application to the Census Bureau and other statistical data which will alleviate the teacher's feeling of helplessness in collecting the desired statistics; and (2) an assignment plan which satisfactorily guides the student in the use of such material, forces him to apply the data to his own environment, and makes it easier for him to recognize the significance of the data—yet does not do all of his thinking for him.

Hereafter are presented: (1) the topics included in each of the three units in which such statistical material is used, and (2) the assignment sheets for the use of this material.

The statistical material tabulated from existing sources falls under two classifications: (1) local statistics relating to geographical environment; and (2) local statistics relating to characteristics of the population. In addition there is presented an outline of a procedure for accumulating statistical data on immigration. Each of these units will be taken up and discussed separately.

I. Local Statistics Relating to Geographic Environment

The topics covered are:

- A. Latitude and Longitude
- B. Altitude

C. Temperature data, i.e., ranges, lengths of growing seasons, dates of killing frost, length of frost free season, etc.

D. Rainfall, precipitation, thunder storms, humidity

E. Sunshine, clearness and cloudiness

F. Wind direction and velocity

The data on latitude and longitude, is most easily obtained from the index to Goode's *School Atlas*.² In a number of cases the latitude and longitude of the exact city in which the teacher is teaching is not given, but nearly always the latitude or longitude of some nearby community will be given and from this the latitude and longitude of the particular community concerned may be calculated with fairly high accuracy. Altitude is easily obtainable in the encyclopedia and in some atlases and gazeteers. The weather data is obtained from *Atlas of American Agriculture*, published by the Weather Bureau,³ from the appropriate regional section of *Climatic Summary of the United States*,⁴ and from the various yearly regional reports of the Weather Bureau, obtainable from every Weather Bureau station, from many coöperating observers, and also from Washington, D.C. Although the reports of coöperating observers in many small towns will not cover all of the points indicated above, it will be found that at the nearest Weather Bureau station there will be more detailed reports which, if not covering by name the immediate town in which the teacher is located, will at least cover the locality. For example: in all of the data indicated above often there is none given for the writer's community. But in the regional reports data is given for nearby Marquette. In most cases local variations between Marquette and Ishpeming are of only slight significance, thus making the data usable for Ishpeming.

Interpretations and uses of climatological data are also brought out in the 1924 and 1925 *Yearbooks* of the United States Department of Agriculture, beginning at pp. 457 and 151 respectively.⁵

As will be observed from the assignment sheet included (Illustration 1), other cities throughout the world having the same latitude and longitude are used for comparison and contrast on the points above to bring out the effects of our particular geographic environment on life in the student's

¹ R. Lynd, and H. Lynd, *Middletown* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1929); R. Lynd, and H. Lynd, *Middletown in Transition* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937); C. Luther Fry, *American Villagers* (New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1926); F. Lorimer, and F. Osborn, *Dynamics of Population* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934); Independent League of Women Voters, *Know Your Town: Ten Sets of Twenty Questions* (Washington: Independent League of Women Voters, 1923); Federal Council of Citizenship Training, Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, *Community Score Card* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1924).

² J. Paul Goode, *School Atlas: Physical, Political, and Economic* (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company).

³ United States Department of Agriculture, *Atlas of American Agriculture*, Part II, "Climate" (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1928).

⁴ United States Weather Bureau, *Climatic Summary of the United States by Regions* (Washington: United States Weather Bureau, Periodically).

⁵ United States Department of Agriculture, *Yearbook of Agriculture*, 1924, and 1925 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1924, 1925).

home community and in the other cities of comparable latitude or longitude. This contrast is often most marked and surprising.

As is indicated in the assignment sheet the principal problem in getting the students to use this data is to have them make interpretations and not just simply to requote the statistics in sentence and paragraph form. The poorer students, of course, do not succeed very well in this, but the majority of students do quite well.

The writer believes that the training given the student in the analysis and interpretation of raw data and in observing the intimate and peculiar details of his specific environment is well worth the time required for the teacher to accumulate the data in the first place.

II. Local Statistics Relating to Composition and Characteristics of the Population. Under this heading are included the following topics:

- A. Trend of population
 - 1. Trend of total population
 - 2. Trend of males
 - 3. Trend of females
- B. Trend of birth rate, death rate and excess of births over deaths
- C. Trend of nativity
- D. Trend of parentage
- E. Citizenship
- F. Trend of age
- G. Trend of sex
- H. Marriedness
- I. Illiteracy and school attendance
- J. Home ownership
- K. Number and size of the families

To these topics, as additional data is made available through statistics being compiled by the writer, will be added:

- A. Religious affiliations of the students
- B. Marriages among different nationalities
- C. Ability to speak foreign languages of the parents and of the students

These latter data are being obtained from questionnaires given to the students who are members of the graduating class each year. They are used in the preparation of the class statistics for the class night program. In the course of a few years the writer expects to obtain this data from enough students to give a statistically reliable sampling of the characteristics of his community on these matters and thus be able to draw reliable conclusions concerning the community. Probably every teacher could now obtain such samplings of their community in some such manner on any of these topics because of the marked increase in the tendency of students to complete their high school education and graduate. Prior to the depression such a sampling would

not have been statistically reliable because of the omission of that group in most communities whose children never graduate.

The data relating to composition and characteristics of the population, may be obtained, in nearly all cases, from the reports of the Census Bureau. If the teacher examines a fairly complete set of the census reports he will find that there is for the census of 1870 (and perhaps 1850 and 1860) and every one thereafter, a volume titled as indicated on the accompanying table (Illustration 2), which shows the title of each volume used by the writer in compiling the data, and the tables which teachers in the various sized communities will find useful.⁶

Teachers who teach in the smaller cities will experience some difficulty in collecting all the above data. Teachers who teach in cities of over 10,000 should be able to get all of it and much more too. Judgment and ingenuity will be necessary in locating the proper source, but much of the above information may be obtained for cities of over 2,500. Teachers teaching in cities of less than 2,500 will be forced to confine themselves largely to county and township data, but can cover quite a few of the above topics.

In addition to the volume on composition and characteristics of the population, the Census Bureau also publishes a "State Compendium" in which is collected and tabulated all of the census information published about each state and its subdivisions for the 1920 and 1910 censuses. Teachers who do not care to invest in the entire collection of census reports will find this "State Compendium" well worth the small cost. Teachers who have access to the complete set of reports will want to turn to the volume dealing with "Census of Manufacturers, by States," and the volumes dealing with "Agricultural Statistics, First and Second Series." Although the writer has not used much of this information nor that given in the other volumes of the reports in these projects, many teachers will find in them other data which they wish to use.

The writer speaks from painful experience when he advises the teacher who commences the accumulation of this data to use the accompanying table (Illustration 4) and to study *thoroughly* the table of contents for each volume before beginning to use it. Much time that would otherwise be used in studying useless tables will be saved thereby. If these sug-

⁶ The Census Bureau informs the writer that it has prepared no outline similar to or more complete than that presented here. However, Olive M. Riddleberger of the Bureau has prepared, "Topical Index of Population Census Reports, 1900-1930," which, proceeding from a topical approach, shows in a much more detailed fashion just what can be found and where. The writer believes that most teachers who are inexperienced in using the Census Reports will find the table of Illustration 2 more simple to use at first, but will eventually want to use the above publication also.

gestions are followed and the volumes mentioned examined it will require only a little experience to be able to find quickly and conveniently just the information needed, and of course once the tabulation for back years is made, all that is necessary thereafter is to bring the information up-to-date with each decennial census. Experience will be the best teacher, but it is the writer's hope that the above suggestions will provide enough short cuts to take the job out of the classification of hopeless tasks and make it one of the projects worth carrying out.

Obviously it is even more important with this data to emphasize the interpretation of the statistics and the meaning of the statistics in terms of life in that particular community (Illustration 3). Students should be expected to note these interpretations and should be expected to draw these conclusions for themselves.

The procedure for handling this data should not be unlike that which John Dewey ascribes to Agassiz, the famous geologist at Harvard. When a certain student came to Agassiz, the scientist handed him a fossil specimen with no other instructions then to look at it and describe everything he saw. By noon of the first day the student felt that he had described everything there was to see, but in the afternoon he found a few more things. When he showed Agassiz the results the next day the teacher advised him to look still further, telling him that he had not seen half of what there was to see. The student was forced to examine this single specimen for three days before the great geologist was satisfied that he had done a good job of observing. The teachers and students who conscientiously attack the problem of interpreting local statistics will find themselves in a similar state of mind.

III. Local Statistics Relating to Immigration

- A. Dates of emigration of ancestors of students
- B. Place (exact) emigrated from
- C. Date of arrival in the United States
- D. Date of settlement in Ishpeming
- E. Cause of emigration
- F. Satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the change in social and economic status resulting from emigration

Over the course of several years the writer has been collecting statistics from his students on the above six topics through the use of the accompanying term paper assignment (Illustration 4), on the immigration of the students' ancestors. At the end of five years of such tabulation between 450 and 500 students will have reported a reliable sampling for a community of 10,000. From these statistics a table is being compiled to show the peak period of immigration for each of the important nationalities resident in this community. The use of this table in

discussing the problem of immigration has materially altered the writer's method of handling this unit.

A map of the old world showing the exact old world sources of emigration to this community is also being compiled. Present indications are that this map will show a marked tendency for immigrants to come from the same localities in the old country. If such proves to be the case considerable light is shed on the local problem of assimilation.

As yet no significant conclusions have been possible from the other data, but it is expected that some significant things will show up as more classes report, particularly with respect to the amount of satisfaction felt by the immigrant.

As will be observed from the assignment sheet the primary purpose of this term paper is to motivate the topic of immigration and to provide the student with a family history document which will prove valuable later in life. In this connection the writer might add that to motivate the topic of heredity he has his students prepare a chart of their family tree, carrying out the suggestions for such a procedure of the Eugenics Record Office, Carnegie Institution, Cold Spring Harbor, Long Island, New York. These two projects together make a very useful family record which a good many students choose to keep.

In conclusion, the writer would urge that these or similar procedures, modified to suit local conditions, would do much to bring the highly generalized sociology and social problems courses down to concrete local conditions. From his experience the conclusion is inescapable that doing so inevitably will make the course much more alive, realistic, and worth while to the students. Furthermore, the teacher's relation to the community is markedly improved because the teacher learns to understand many intimate details of the community life that are overlooked by the general run of people. These are results well worth the effort necessary to attain them.

Illustration 1

ASSIGNMENT FOR TERM PAPER ON GEOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Use:

1. The figures given in the study outline.
2. Topics and references on the study sheets and in the auxiliary texts.
3. The auxiliary texts, and the references given below.

Bring out in your writing:

1. All significant figures to illustrate your topics, points, or conclusions.
2. Emphasize comparisons and contrasts between your community and other parts of the world.
3. How geographical conditions in your community actually affect your life.

Procedure for:

- I. Topics not found on the study sheets
 - A. Concerning the location of Ishpeming
 1. Latitude, longitude, and altitude
 - a. See Goode's *School Atlas*, etc.
 2. Follow the latitude and longitude of your community around the world, both north and south, and east and west, and compare or contrast as to climate, position on the continent, life, etc.
 - B. Seasons
 1. Length of growing, dates of killing frosts, etc.
 - a. See *Atlas of American Agriculture, Agricultural Yearbooks*, 1924 and 1925, Oxford and Chisholm economic atlases.
 - C. Weather
 1. Temperature, humidity, rainfall, snowfall, sunshine, cloudiness, etc.
 - a. Sources same as above.
- II. Topics from the study as above.
 - A. One good method would be to outline the topics, conclusions, etc., that you wish to bring out. Then insert in the outline the pertinent figures, etc., to illustrate your points. Finally, prepare a connected theme, written interestingly, in good English from this.

Don'ts:

1. Don't use figures without writing a discussion which interprets them. *Those themes which simply copy the figures in sentence form with little or no interpretation always fail.* This is the most common failing of students. It indicates laziness, lack of effort, and a poor attitude toward the course, and so seriously affects the quarter and semester grades.
2. Don't say only the obvious things. Hunt for the less obvious, either in books or by observation.
3. Don't wait until the last minute. This paper cannot be written without considerable investigation, thought, and planning ahead of time.

Illustration 2

TABLE SHOWING FOR DECENNIAL CENSUS, TITLE OF VOLUME TO BE EXAMINED AND TABLES TO BE USED

1790-1840—Purely a count of "heads." However in the earliest ones the name of each head of the house for each civil division is given and some data of potential social significance concerning the number holding slaves, the number holding indentured

servants, the size of the families, number of men, number of women, number of children, etc. This data is not compiled in table form for communities, but could be so tabulated with a little trouble.

1850-1870—The census of 1850 was the first consciously to publish social data. This was, of course, incomplete in the earlier years. Teachers living in communities organized prior to 1870 and having volumes of these early censuses available will want to go back to them to make the record complete.

1870—Vol. 1—Population and Social Statistics
 Data for counties—Tables 2, 5, 7, 10, 18, 24.
 Data for minor civil divisions—Tables 3, 25.
 Data for 50 principal cities—Tables 8, 11, 21, 31, 32.

1880—Population
 Data for counties—Tables 5, 8, 14, 23.
 Data for 50 principal cities—Tables 15, 16, 35, 36.
 Data for 100 principal cities—Table 25.
 Data for cities of 4,000 and over—Tables 6, 9.

1890—Population
 Part I
 Data for counties—Tables 15-18, 22, 33, 79, 88.
 Data for minor civil divisions—Table 5.
 Data for cities of 100,000 and over—Tables 85, 94, 95.
 Data for cities of 25,000 and over—Tables 6, 7, 29-31, 34, 50-62, 72-74, 76, 78, 84, 91, 93.
 Data for cities of 2,500 and over—Tables 19, 23, 80, 89.
 Data for cities of 1,000 and over—Table 8.

1900—Population
 Data for counties—Tables 26, 84, 103, 106.
 Data for cities of 100,000 and over—Tables 32, 111, 112, 113, 115.
 Data for cities of 50,000 and over—Tables 101-102.
 Data for cities of 25,000 and over—Tables 9, 19, 20, 21, 23, 25, 31, 49, 50-55, 74-83, 90, 94, 96, 98, 100.
 Data for cities of 8,000 and over—Table 107.
 Data for cities of 2,500 and over—Tables 27, 104.

1910—Population, Vol. II and Vol. III
 See name of state under "Contents."

1920—Population, Vol. III, Composition and Characteristics of the Population, By States.
 also: State Compendium—all detailed tables.

1930—Bound volumes not examined by writer, as the writer used the state "separates" as they appeared.

Illustration 3

ASSIGNMENT FOR TERM PAPER ON THE COMPOSITION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POPULATION

Use:

1. The figures in the study outline.
2. The Census reports for additional figures.
3. The auxiliary texts for help in interpreting.

Procedure:

1. The following order of topics is suggested:
 - a. Trend of the total population, and of males and females separately
 - b. Nativity
 - c. Parentage
 - d. Citizenship
 - e. Age
 - f. Sex
 - g. Marriedness
 - h. Families
 - i. Home ownership
 - j. Vital statistics
 - k. Illiteracy
2. Whenever possible interpret *trends* of figures. That is, ask yourself, "What changes and how much (in per cent—sometimes you will have to figure this out) have occurred in this item from 1910-1920, or 1920-1930, or 1910-1920-1930?" and "What do these changes mean? How do they affect your community?" etc.
3. Whenever possible make comparisons with other numbers and state to what conclusions you come.
4. The best procedure will be to state your figures and then your conclusions. Oftentimes your conclusions will require a full paragraph or more of discussion.
5. Fry, *American Villagers*, Lynd, *Middletown*, and Chase, *The Tragedy of Waste*, will give hints as to style. However, Fry does not state enough conclusions. Try for an interesting literary style, as well as sound interpretations. Try to make the meaning of your figures stand out so clearly that anyone can see it. Chase and Lynd are excellent at this. They succeed in making their figures exciting.
6. *Never state any figures without interpreting them* in some way. As in the first paper, this is the most common reason for the failure of papers, and seriously affects your terms marks.

Illustration 4

ASSIGNMENT FOR TERM PAPER ON THE "IMMIGRATION OF MY ANCESTORS TO THIS COUNTRY"

Write a story in good literary style (but factually

true) on the above subject, in which you bring out *as many as possible* of the points suggested below. *Make this a family record that you will want to keep and be proud of in future years.* Exercise your initiative and ingenuity and do all in your power to get as much of this information as possible. Oftentimes relatives and neighbors will have much valuable information. When absolutely necessary, time will be granted to send and get this information from out of town relatives.

The purposes of this paper are: (1) to better enable you to know yourself and your social background, (2) to illustrate the various principles and forces in immigration, through your own personal history, (3) to provide you with a record of information which you will want to keep and value highly in future years. To insure adequate fulfillment of the assignment the instructor must grade these papers, of course, but they are being written primarily for your benefit.

Points to cover in so far as possible:

The immigrant in the old country:

1. Where did your immigrant ancestors live in the old country—give city, province, and section of the country exactly.
2. What was their occupation in the old country, or that of their parents if they came over when young?
3. Where did the generation before them live?
4. Did they own their own house in the old country? Land? Business?
5. Did they attend the old country schools? How far?
6. What were the general political and social conditions like in the old country at the time of their emigration? Use encyclopedias, history books, and other reference books. Narrow your discussion to the immediate years when they left.

The emigration voyage:

7. What was the age of the immigrant ancestor at time of emigration?
8. From what city did they sail to America?
9. What were some of their unusual, interesting, or amusing experiences enroute?
10. What route did they follow?
11. How long did the trip take?
12. Did they come as contract laborers? Was their fare paid by some company or agent, which they had to work out when they arrived here?
13. What were their reasons for coming, or those of their parents?
14. How did they happen to go where they did after landing?

The arrival and early experiences:

15. What were the conditions like in this country when they landed? Treat as in topic 6.
16. When did they land?
17. Where did they go after landing and what did they do next?
18. How did they get work, what kind, and where?
19. Describe their movements before settling down in Ishpeming, giving the places, occupations, and reasons for leaving.
20. If they couldn't speak English, what difficulties did this cause?
21. When they settled down what was their occupation?

The results of the immigration:

22. Did or do they own their own house, car, life insurance, business, land, etc.? In short, discuss the extent to which they have prospered or not materially (normal times con-

sidered) since coming to this country.

23. Do they feel that they have gained socially, politically (freedom, etc.), economically and culturally, by coming here or might they have done as well or better in the old country?
24. Make your own critical estimate of the extent and manner in which they as individuals and their race in this community have and have not become successfully assimilated. Consider such things as speaking and reading English, retention of old-country habits and practices.

The object of the last three questions is not to inquire into intimate and personal matters for the instructor's benefit, but merely to guide you in making your own evaluation of the relative success of immigration as it affects you personally. You are free to be as specific as you see fit on many of these items, just so long as you demonstrate that you are genuinely trying to understand the place of immigration in your own life and that of your community.

News and Comment

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"NON-ACADEMIC" YOUTH

Like a rolling snowball, the concern about the educational needs of the slow learner of high school age is increasing. By whatever name these pupils are called, they are those who do not respond successfully to any of the existing courses of study in the secondary schools. They are normal young people, dull or slow-learning, but they are not subnormal. If none of the courses of study now offered—whether academic or vocational—suit them, by what means and in what ways shall they be educated for vocations, for parenthood, and for the responsibilities of democratic citizenship and community life?

Everywhere the question is being faced. In the east, in Pennsylvania, many committees are at work to determine "a social studies curriculum for the non-academic pupils in the secondary schools"; in the west, in California, Long Beach is seriously considering the problem; in Illinois, Chicago is trying out a technique to meet the need, while Evanston has been developing a set of courses for the non-academic since 1931. In the hope of aiding teachers now grappling with this problem, a few references are here gathered together which bear fairly directly upon it.

In 1936, the Briggs Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals reported (*Issues of*

Secondary Education) on the problem of what to do with those young people who can not or will not meet the requirements of the high school. Should the school, it asked, adapt its curriculum to them or should the community establish some separate, non-school agency to deal with the problem by means of out-of-school activities? In 1937, the Douglass Committee of the American Youth Commission proposed a work-study plan for children over sixteen, set up coöperatively by schools and employers. Since its establishment in 1934, the Civilian Conservation Corps has demonstrated that these youth, although interested more in work than in school, nevertheless need education. A compact summary of the work of the CCC was given in *School and Society* for September 23, 1939 (Heep, "The Civilian Conservation Corps"). The CCC, however, did not touch this problem as it affected girls. In the interests of all older, unemployed youth, a series of work projects has been undertaken by the National Youth Administration.

Late in 1937, a questionnaire about school practices in use for slow learners was submitted to fifty-seven cities, large and small, in all parts of the country. Miss Gertrude Hildreth reported the results in the October, 1939, number of *Educational Administration and Supervision* ("Educational Provisions for

Slow-Learning Pupils"). Forty-nine cities replied. Miss Hildreth listed each of twenty-three questions asked and classified and summarized the answers to each. She described the problem of the slow-learner and itemized his more important traits and the varied factors contributing to their growth. From the questionnaire it was evident that, on the whole, schools do not meet the problem of the slow-learner squarely in terms of his traits and needs, but reply upon the easier courses in the already existing curriculums. In addition, Miss Hildreth listed thirty-two problems which need research study. All in all, her article gave a clear-cut picture of the problem of the slow learner as it now stands.

At the meeting of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, last Thanksgiving week-end, Dr. Charles H. Judd, although discussing general education, really oriented the problem of the non-academic in our educational history. From his remarks it was evident that the social studies should hold one of the key positions in any curriculum for these students (see *School and Society* for November 25, 1939, Judd, "The Organization of a Program of General Education in Secondary Schools and Colleges").

Superintendent T. W. H. Irion made a general survey of the problem in the January, 1939, number of *The Bulletin* of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the N.E.A.: "Non-academic High-School Student." In *School and Society* for October 14, 1939, Perley S. Turner reviewed various "Problems of the Dull-Normal Group at the Secondary School Level." J. P. Leonard suggested "Unifying the Secondary Curriculum Around the Problems of Youth," in the September, 1939, issue of *Secondary Education*. G. E. Hill and N. P. Ferry made practical and concrete suggestions in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* for October, 1938. Professor Hill made a usable analysis of "The Psychological Basis for Methods in Teaching Pupils of Different Ability Levels," and Miss Ferry described her own "Methods Used with a Low Grade Intelligence Group." In the November, 1939, issue of the same magazine, R. N. P. Atkinson discussed "Guidance of the Slow-Learning Child in the Secondary School."

Grace Boyd, in the September, 1939, number of *Education* described "The Development of Non-Academic Courses in the Evanston Township High School." Her account of a decade's grappling with the problem is a valuable contribution. In the May-June issue of the *Chicago Schools Journal*, Superintendent W. H. Johnson told how Chicago was meeting the problem by using an adjustment service in which specially trained teachers assisted the regular classroom teachers to fit courses and methods to pupil abilities. Although dealing with the elementary school child, the discussion shed light on

the high school problem ("Individualized Methods of Learning"; see the summary in the September, 1939, number of *The Education Digest*). C. H. Woodruff offered suggestions on the problem in his account of "Practical Curriculum Building in Long Beach" (September, 1939, issue of *The Clearing House*). W. H. Dooley, in "The Philosophy of Education Underlying the work of the Straubmueller Textile High School" (see *High Points* for November, 1939), recounted experiences in New York which are worth attention. The November, 1939, issue of *The High School Journal*, devoted to the subject of "Progressive Practices in Secondary Schools," had much to offer on this question.

The Future of the Social Studies (published, 1939, by The National Council for The Social Studies) presented a large number of courses of study, grades 1-12, many of them relevant to the matter here being reviewed. See, for example, Howard E. Wilson's "A Social-Studies Course of Study," which gave a program for low-ability groups in the senior high school. A very pertinent question was raised in the March, 1939, issue of *The School Review* by P. R. Pierce: "Can Teachers Be Trained for New Curriculums?" This question was a very real one in Chicago, according to Superintendent Johnson, in his article previously mentioned.

It is commonplace that periodically the spotlight falls upon some educational question that affects all parts of the nation at once. A conjunction of events and conditions has turned that light upon this problem of the non-academic or slow-learning pupil. It now seems imperative that teachers take the lead in grappling with it.

LIBERAL EDUCATION

Professor I. L. Kandel is one of that group of teachers who have done so much to shape the education of our day. In the *Teachers College Record* for November, 1939, he gave a clarifying re-interpretation of "The Meaning of a Liberal Education."

In every age since its formulation by Plato and Aristotle, the meaning of a liberal education has been questioned. Because of its previous history a liberal education, by the nineteenth century, had come to be identified with training in the classics and mathematics and had been securely anchored in the schools by being required for admission into the professions, including teaching on the upper levels. It was also fastened to the curriculum by the doctrine of formal discipline: the subjects themselves gave a liberal education to their possessors.

Several developments in the nineteenth century broke down this view of a liberal education. Psychology destroyed the classical doctrine of formal discipline. It became evident that rigorous training of the mind by means of the study of certain sub-

jects did not enable the student to understand the world of his day or cope with the problems arising in it. Moreover, the extension of secondary education to a constantly increasing number of people made it clear that the classical curriculum did not suit everyone. The expansion of secondary school enrollment forced the recognition of the fact of the enormous variety of individual differences.

Two principles emerged: (1) For purposes of mental training, there is no inherent superiority of any subject over another. Its value depends upon the kinds of ability the learner is endowed with. (2) Educational methods are as valuable as the subjects themselves, if the learner is to derive the greatest benefit from his educational activities. The conception of education, in our day, has been further modified by the recognition of the fact that education is not provided primarily for the benefit of the individual, but "to enable him to play his part in the social community of which he is a member."

There is, to be sure, a tendency for the pendulum to swing too far. Are we stressing the changing present and neglecting "those values, ideas, and ideals that are permanent in the progress of humanity?" Are we magnifying method and minimizing the value of content? Are we becoming too much concerned with attitudes and emotions, at the expense of intellectual training? The dangers which these tendencies create are exemplified in the educational systems of the totalitarian states.

Professor Kandel defined liberal education as education which produced "judgment and discrimination, good taste and sensitiveness to beauty, moderation and tolerance for everything except intolerance, ideals and convictions, open-mindedness and breadth of interests, and the power of mental enjoyment." To produce these results, education must grow out of the interests of living men and must be directed toward those interests. All aspects of human life—physical, esthetic, intellectual, social and moral, and the interrelationships of these—are liberalizing, no one aspect more than another.

NAZI EDUCATION

"Education Under Nazism" [*sic.*] was the subject of the November issue of *The Journal of Educational Sociology*. The discussions, from the angle of the sociologist, were clarifying and useful to those seeking to understand Naziism as a social phenomenon and a working procedure. At the outset, Professor E. George Payne, editor of the journal, described the basis of personal control characteristic of the past, as revealed by history, and the basis of social control which is characteristic of democracy. Myths, he said, were indispensable for the maintenance of personal government. In Nazi Germany those myths include the Aryan myth and the myth of homogeneous cul-

ture which justifies complete, autocratic control of education, of the means of communication, of the arts, and of religion.

In speaking of democratic social control, Dr. Payne stressed its recency and the weaknesses it has shown, particularly in America. Education bore the hope of democracy. The relation of the two was examined by Professor Philip W. L. Cox ("Education in a Democracy"), while Edward J. Kunzer described "Education Under Hitler."

In Germany, education is primarily for social control through the development of attitudes, habits, and ideas which assimilate the individual into Nazi society. Besides the school, the instruments of such education include all the means of communication, the theater, and social groups such as the family, the play group, the work group, and the local community. How these agencies are used to indoctrinate Germans with Naziism was outlined. The specific topic of Nazi propaganda techniques was explained by Julius Yourman who told how the Germans used the devices made familiar to Americans by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis. James J. Gibson studied in detail "The Aryan Myth" to which Dr. Payne referred. Over against these things were set Professor Cox's three elements in the democratic creed: (1) man's perfectibility, (2) authority of truth, and (3) political equality of all normal adults.

AMERICA'S RESOURCES

Frontiers of Democracy, successor to *Social Frontiers*, gave over its November issue largely to the study of our resources. Louis M. Hacker, in "Capitalism in America," analyzed three propositions: "First that American institutionalism has been shaped virtually from the beginning in a capitalist climate; second, that the state itself, as an agency of authority, has been shorn of its powers much more quickly in the United States than in European countries; and third, that the belief in the existence of opportunities to achieve economic equality has had a longer and more vital tradition in American history than has been the case anywhere else."

Kirtley F. Mather pointed out the trend, thanks to chemistry, of using more of our renewable resources and less of those which are not renewable. He gave an illuminating discussion of the possibility of cultivating the scientific attitude in the average citizen as he faces social questions, for the future of democracy would appear to depend upon this development. Louis C. Hunter inventoried "Our Intellectual Resources," finding them to consist of (1) our inherited wisdom, embodied in traditions, institutions, conventional ideas, and the like, which serve as stabilizers of our civilization, and (2) research, or trained intelligence, in quantity and organization never before known. Unfortunately, only a negligible

amount is in the field of social and humanistic sciences, half of research being devoted to the industrial field and the other half being divided about equally between military science and agriculture and its supporting sciences.

Two articles in the *Frontiers of Democracy* illustrated how "America Uses Its Resources." The one unfolded the program of the Tennessee Valley Authority as an example of community planning in a democracy. The other, of especial interest to teachers of the social studies, described the disappearance of "Teacher Freedom in a West Virginia County," where King Coal named teachers and renewed contracts. Schools there, according to the writer, no longer were places for the education of the next generation; rather they were sounding boards for the favorite indoctrinations by the dominant pressure groups. A companion piece to this is Kermit Eby's plea for "Intellectual Honesty, an Asset to Good Teaching," which appeared in the November issue of *The Clearing House*. Mr. Eby called upon teachers to be scientists and not dogmatists.

The Progressive Education Association, which publishes *Frontiers of Democracy*, has, in conjunction with the National Education Association, set up a new Commission on Resources and Education. Represented on it are the federal Office of Education and the National Resources Planning Board. Other agencies will be added later. The project is being financed by the General Education Board.

PROMISE OF AMERICAN LIFE

Herbert Croly, author of that still significant book, *The Promise of American Life*, founded *The New Republic* twenty-five years ago. Last November 8 the magazine commemorated that birthday with a special anniversary number. Over this issue, as over the first, war cast its shadow, a fact naturally in the minds of the sixteen eminent contributors. Teachers will find much in the observations and interpretations of the American scene as it appeared to men like Charles A. Beard, Lewis Mumford, Thomas Mann, and William H. Kilpatrick, which will help in clarifying their outlook upon affairs.

"OPINION INDUSTRY"

A very suggestive addition to the articles in *The New Republic* was that made by Max Lerner, in two parts, in *The Nation* for November 4 and 11. Called "Propaganda's Golden Age," Professor Lerner scrutinized "Freedom in the Opinion Industry," and then outlined a plan for a "TVA in the Opinion Industry." First he gave his reasons for believing that the formation of opinion nowadays, through the press, radio, and cinema, was a profit-making industry no less than that of making shoes or automobiles. Big corporations dominate one field as fully as the other.

Consequently, freedom of the press and opinion suffers from the fact that a relative few now "occupy the strategic passes to the castles of the mind and exact their heavy toll."

What, then, does freedom of speech mean, when Mr. Hearst can speak with the voice of millions while John Citizen can speak only with his own single voice? Is freedom no more than laissez-faire? Economically speaking, is the wage-earner free, compared with his corporate employer? In the area of opinion, is freedom any greater? If the unregulated decisions of socially irresponsible capitalism is not freedom, is it safe, in the effort to extend democratic control in the economic area, to allow corporate interests to shape public opinion at will? Under such circumstances, does not freedom of opinion merely play into the hands of economic scarcity and economic tyranny?

But Professor Lerner does not favor government-owned radio or a government-monopolized press. He prefers the TVA principle, the principle of the yardstick. Accordingly he proposed an experiment with a government broadcasting chain or pair of chains parallel to the private chains, the government chains being run by the guild of radio artists, as exemplified by the Federal Theater. Without advertising, the government chain could be a yardstick as well as an instrument to broadcast the truth about social conditions, as commercial chains cannot do.

After the fashion of the SEC "truth in securities," legislation could be drafted to prevent rigging the opinion market and to check unethical practices in the marketing of ideas. Professor Lerner pleaded for free competition in ideas and not for monopoly. He indicated various difficulties and dangers in his suggestion, but remarked that these were no greater than those that now arise out of the present method of letting Nature take its course.

In the November 18 issue, under the heading, "Free Trade in Ideas," the editors discussed Max Lerner's two articles. They agreed that economic freedom for the worker has vanished, but they held that in the intellectual market-place truth still can compete successfully with falsehood. They cited the doubtful success of government regulation in business as suggestive of no greater success in the sphere of information and ideas. But the problem which he posed survives all doubts concerning the particular solutions offered. After all, "'freedom of the press' is the privilege of the few in an age when a million dollars is small change in big-city journalism."

HIGH SCHOOLS AND THE WAR

Educational journals, no less than teachers and administrative officers, have, perforce, been concerned with the question of "teaching about the War." A month after the conflict began, the Educational Poli-

cies Commission laid before the schools of the nation a carefully prepared statement on "American Education and the War in Europe." This statement was printed in full in the November issue of *The Journal of the National Education Association*. Excerpts have been quoted in many places.

The November issue of *Secondary Education*, the bulletin of the Department of Secondary Teachers of the N.E.A., made a fine contribution to the question by presenting a symposium on "Secondary Education and the War in Europe." Following an abstract from the statement by the Educational Policies Commission, it gave the views of such leaders in the social studies field as Professor Briggs of Columbia University, R. O. Hughes of Pittsburgh, Tyler Kepner of Brookline (Mass.), Professor E. B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota, Dean Pechstein of the University of Cincinnati, Kenneth E. Gell, president of the New York State Council for the Social Studies, and Clyde Miller of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis. All agreed that consideration of the war should be given in the classroom, but that it should be used, like any other subject, as a means for the education of pupils.

A USEFUL MISCELLANY

Under the direction of Dr. Daniel A. Prescott of the University of Chicago, a group of educational leaders from all parts of the country are engaging in a project to improve teaching. Sponsored by the American Council on Education as part of the national program of its Commission on Teacher Education, the project is being financed by the General Education Board. As such, Dr. Prescott's group forms the service division on child development and teacher personnel. Its first work will be to assemble and interpret the many studies of the growth and development of individuals, published and unpublished, which have been and are being made in all parts of the nation. These studies have never been correlated. A synthesis of their findings should be invaluable to teacher-training institutions as well as to school systems. Over thirty school systems and colleges have agreed to undertake experiments designed to improve teacher education, both in service and in training.

Repeated references have been made in this department to the conservation problem. A useful survey of that problem was presented in *The Journal of Geography* by Professor Richard J. Preston ("Soil Erosion: The Significance of the Problem and Its Attempted Control"). In the same number, Mr. A. W. Collins reported on a study made of the extent to which students of United States history, in the high school, mastered place location ("Pupil Comprehension of Place Location Data in High School United States History"). He described the method of testing, the results obtained, and concluded that such mastery

was not achieved. Students showed little correlation of ability to locate a place on a map and ability to identify the place from a verbal description of it. They also exhibited "general confusion in the location of cities, lakes, rivers, and states."

In *High Points* for November, Beatrice F. Hyslop brought together some important sources of materials for the study of "International Relations in the Classroom." Her suggestions upon the use of the radio, the motion picture, the library, and pamphlets and the agencies which furnish them, are helpful.

The Latin American Institute which held its first yearly meeting at the University of Michigan last summer, is preparing for its next institute at the University of Texas during the forthcoming summer. The American Council of Learned Societies' Committee on Latin American Studies is a co-sponsor of the institute. The courses planned will cover such phases of Latin-American culture as history and anthropology, government, economics, literature, education, and the arts. Professors from Latin-American universities will join the faculty of the institute.

The December issue of *Fortune* continued its story of Germany and of Poland. Two other articles were particularly useful for high schools: "The U.S. State Department" and "Career Diplomat." Both of these gave a concrete picture of the work and the workings of the department. "Career Diplomat" was so attractively written that it will interest youth in the service.

On November 1 appeared the first issue of *The Councilor*, the official publication of the Illinois Council for the Social Studies. Thus another state journal by social studies teachers for social studies teachers is added to the small number of such periodicals. The notion is spreading that the teaching of social studies will be furthered if the teachers of a state can be brought into fairly continuous contact, exchanging experiences, becoming personally acquainted, and in other ways pooling their resources. This modest little Illinois journal, which will appear on the first day of February, April, and November, will serve that object. In Pennsylvania a committee is now searching for ways and means to coordinate and develop group consciousness in its teachers.

STILL FILMS

Three sets of film strips, with forty pictures each and provided with explanatory material for the teacher, dealing with the history of the United States, have recently been issued. Many of the pictures reproduce famous prints, maps, engravings, and other original materials. They show various phases of American life, not merely the picturesque and exciting, and will appeal especially to the high school pupil. The set is especially useful for review purposes. Inquiries should be addressed to the McKinley Publishing Co., 1021 Filbert Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

Motion Picture Department

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, JR.
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The feature and short pictures listed below are entertainment pictures released for showing at motion picture theaters. Due to the short time between previews and release dates of motion pictures, we are unable to evaluate them from an historical point of view and must rely on advance information from the studios.

FEATURE PICTURES

GERONIMO

An historical production of the early days in the Apache country of Southwest. It is the story of the great Indian chief Geronimo and the last great Indian campaign against the whites.

Produced by Paramount. Director, Paul H. Sloane. Release date, January 12, 1940.

The cast includes: Preston Foster, Ellen Drew, Andy Devine, Gene Lockhart, William Henry, Chief Thundercloud, Ralph Morgan, Marjorie Gateson and Kitty Kelly.

THE HUNCHBACK OF NOTRE DAME

A completely new filming of Victor Hugo's famous novel. The buildings and especially the Cathedral of Notre Dame have been reproduced in as accurate detail as existing records would permit.

Produced by RKO Radio. Producer, Pandro S. Ber- man. Director, William Dieterle. From the novel by Victor Hugo. Release date, December 29, 1939.

The cast includes: Charles Laughton, Sir Cedric Hardwicke, Thomas Mitchell, Maureen O'Hara, Ed-

mond O'Brien, Alan Marshal, Walter Hampden and Katharine Alexander.

SHORT PICTURES

THE BILL OF RIGHTS

The story and origin of this historic document, is presented in a technicolor short picture by Vitaphone. The provision for freedom of worship, freedom of speech, warranty of freedom against search and seizure, and other rights and privileges not contained in the constitution, are explained in this historical picture.

EDUCATIONAL FILMS

Housing In Our Time. This is a two-reel sound film, 16 mm. and 35 mm., released by the United States Housing Authority. It presents a frank and authoritative record of the housing needs of the nation. Address inquiries to the local housing authority or to the U.S. Housing Authority, Washington, D.C.

Hands, Rain for the Earth. These are two of several films made by the Works Projects Administration. Both are available in 16 mm. and 35 mm. *Hands* is a one-reel picturization of the circulation of money from the pay envelope through the channels of business. *Rain for the Earth*, in two reels, shows the effects of drought in the western plains and the steps being taken for conservation. A third picture, *Man Against the River*, in one reel, portrays the work of the many agencies engaged in fighting Ohio-Mississippi floods. A descriptive folder describing these and other films may be secured from the WPA Motion Picture Section, Washington, D.C.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

The New England Mind. The Seventeenth Century. By Perry Miller. New York: the Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. 528. \$3.75.

Since the lag between advances in historical scholarship and the inclusion of new findings in secondary school textbooks is at best considerable, and since teachers are severely limited in the time that they can spend in reading new monographs, the popularization of revisionist points of view must

inevitably be somewhat retarded. If sufficiently detailed in scope, reviews of new investigations may, of course, frequently be of great use. But no review, however lengthy, could do adequate justice to the rich texture characterizing Perry Miller's volume. Based as it is on a thorough investigation, not only of what New Englanders in the seventeenth century wrote, but on what they read, this study will, without doubt, compel us to abandon many conventional

views about the early New England Puritans. Professor Miller shows that in some respects the Puritans were more medieval in their outlooks, particularly in the fields of economic and social philosophy, than is commonly supposed; that in other respects they made so important a place for reason in their discussions, theological as well as non-theological, that some among them, at least, loosened the curtains which later were pushed back to clear the stage for the naturalism so characteristic of the Enlightenment. Professor Miller also shows that the New England Puritans were less rigid and orthodox disciples of Calvin than the older accounts suggest, and that in particular they owed much to Pierre Ramus, a French Protestant logician and theologian, who differed in important respects from Calvin himself. For students of history and the social studies Professor Miller's discussion of the role of the covenant in the thought patterns of the seventeenth century New England Puritan will be particularly useful. This conception of a covenant of grace softened the mechanistic and deterministic aspects of Calvinism and, in the sphere of social and political relations, was of considerable importance, as scholars have indeed long recognized, in providing an ideological justification for limiting secular authority. The discussion of the nature of man, of the plain style, and of nature itself, will also repay careful reading. The book is the more important because the various segments of Puritan thought are related the one to the other and because Professor Miller also here and there suggests the subsequent career of some of the ideas with which he is concerned. For Professor Miller makes it amply clear that, in spite of the need of revising many generally held views of the early Puritans, their pattern of thought was so essentially different from that which become prominent in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, that the transformation of New England's mind presents an historical problem of major importance.

MERLE CURTI

Teachers College, Columbia University
New York City

Mahan. The Life and Work of Captain Alfred Thayer Mahan, U.S.N. By W. D. Puleston, New Haven: Yale University Press, 1939. Pp. xiv, 380. Illustrated. \$4.00.

The first biography of Mahan written by an American is the work of a former head of the Office of Naval Intelligence. Its purpose is to demonstrate that Mahan's "message was primarily intended for the American people and that his thesis is as vital to the United States today as it was to Great Britain when it was written almost a half century ago." The emphasis is upon Mahan's career as a writer. His training and experiences in the Navy throughout the

Civil War and at home and foreign stations were excellent preparation for his subsequent literary undertakings. His habitually studious reading of history over many years secured him a reputation as a scholarly officer which resulted in his assignment to duty as a lecturer at the Naval War College, Newport, Rhode Island, in 1886. Mahan's greatest contribution as an officer was his championship of this institution newly established for the instruction of officers in naval warfare.

From his lectures, which were the high lights of the courses at the Naval War College, developed his famous books on sea power: *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660-1783* (1890), *The Influence of Sea Power upon the French Revolution and Empire, 1793-1812* (1892), and *Sea Power in Its Relation to the War of 1812* (1905). In these scholarly volumes Mahan revealed, as it had not been done before, the preponderant part that sea power had played in the rise of nations during the preceding two centuries. Until his death in 1914, he continued writing in the fields of naval history, biography, autobiography, and essays on foreign policy, war, and naval administration. Captain Puleston presents a detailed account of all of Mahan's writings—their genesis, their content and their influence. The current naval expansion program may be taken as evidence that Mahan's teachings, as based upon historical facts, have not been without adherents in this country.

HENRY PUTNEY BEERS

The National Archives
Washington, D.C.

Anti-Slavery Origins of the Civil War in the United States. By Dwight L. Dumond. (Commonwealth Foundation Lectures, University College, London). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1939. Pp. vii, 143. \$2.00.

There are many people who feel that the causes of the Civil War have been so thoroughly probed and so definitely judged that not much more remains to be said on the subject. Dr. Dumond's book will make such folk scratch their heads and start thinking again. It will stimulate new ideas along several lines. In the first place, it will pull up sharply those who have leaned over backward in dealing sympathetically with the Old South and the slave system which dominated it. It will give something of a jolt to those who have become accustomed to making a sharp differentiation between the abolitionists and the Republican Party. It will point out new acres of diamonds lying untouched in the back-yards of historians living north of the Mason and Dixon line.

Dr. Dumond's intensely interesting exposition of the technique and process by which the ideas of a mass of people are slowly changed compels the mind

to draw parallels. The reviewer has never read a work on the origins of the Civil War which seemed more intimately bound up with present day problems—freedom of speech, the technique of pressure, the conflict of ideologies, political initiative based on spiritual conviction. There seems more than a chemical similarity between the eggs which pelted the abolitionist, Theodore Weld, in 1835 and those which spattered Norman Thomas in our own time.

The author's primary purpose "to analyze the abolition indictment of slavery and to trace the steps by which the defense of the institution forced men to proceed from a generous discussion of the subject to a war against it." (p. 4) For a considerable period the American Colonization Society represented the chief attempt at the solution of the problem. By 1830, however, it had become "the cohesive force for all the reactionary elements in the slavery controversy," and soon went into decline. A group of anti-slavery men and women from the southern states (who had to move north) formed the nucleus of the new militant anti-slavery crusade. Brutal opposition to their attacks upon slavery soon served to broaden the issue. The fight "ceased to be one of slavery or freedom for the Negro alone and broadened out into a challenge and the defense of the Civil rights of free men." (p. 67) Scrutiny of the constitutional rights of citizens to discuss slavery soon led to the propounding of new constitutional theories based on the slavery issue: the higher law doctrine and the theory of concurrent majorities. Of Abraham Lincoln the author says: "There are historians who hold that Lincoln was not an uncompromising foe of the peculiar institution. . . . I am constrained to the belief that they are wrong . . . ; that, if Weld and Birney were abolitionists, Lincoln was one." (pp. 106-107)

Dr. Dumond's presentation is at once precise and pleasant. The topography and makeup of the volume are clean and satisfying. There is an index, a list of suggested readings, and a selected bibliography of contemporary pro and anti-slavery publications.

PHILIP S. KLEIN

Franklin and Marshall College
Lancaster, Pennsylvania

Fighting Years. By Oswald Garrison Villard. New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1939. Pp. 543. \$3.75.

This is the autobiography of a liberal who represents a very definite tradition in America. His father was a German immigrant possessed of much vision and enterprise, coupled with human sympathy; his mother's father was William Lloyd Garrison of anti-slavery fame, noted for his great courage and dynamic fighting quality. From these parents and grandparents, Villard inherited a humanitarian spirit, great courage and a fortune which included two

historic periodicals, the *New York Evening Post* and *The Nation*. Most of Villard's life has been spent with these two papers. Through them, and with his voice and his fortune, Villard has been fighting liberal causes, national and international, through his long career.

This autobiography is fascinating reading. It contains much political history particularly during the administrations of Theodore Roosevelt, William Howard Taft and Woodrow Wilson. The accounts of American participation in the World War and the following peace-making are particularly pertinent today and should be given as wide circulation as possible. It is a very heartening story for all interested in democracy and the cause of human rights. To those who want to learn of modern battles for the cause of freedom, this volume will be very welcome.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Education for Citizenship. By Howard E. Wilson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1938. Pp. 274. \$2.75.

This volume is the report of the first state survey of the teaching of the social studies ever made by a specialist in the field. For this reason, if for no other, the book deserves the close attention of all who are interested in social studies instruction.

The survey is based on the sampling process. The secondary education section of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and the Cost of Public Education in the State of New York administered a battery of tests, including several social studies tests, to the pupils in sixty-two selected schools. After the results were analyzed, a more intensive study was made of the pupils in twenty-three schools located in thirteen communities. None of the schools in the larger cities, which comprise over two-thirds of the population of New York, were included in the twenty-three intensively studied. The largest of the twenty-three schools contained only 704 pupils. For a state so large and so highly urbanized as New York, the schools surveyed constitute a very small representation, and the conclusions drawn must be considered with that limitation in mind.

The standard used to evaluate social studies instruction in the schools surveyed was "civic competence" or "social competence." Many educationalists consider such an objective as the goal of *all* secondary education and not merely the responsibility of the social studies. To discover the extent to which "social competence" was developed in the schools by means of the social studies, tests were given in American history, political civics, contemporary affairs, community facts, social terms, basic study skills, and attitudes. Questionnaires on the use of the radio,

library books, newspapers, and participation in group activities were answered by over 3,000 pupils. A number of schools were also visited by the surveyor. Limitations of space prevent an adequate account of the results and conclusions. It is sufficient to say that in all probability the picture is not so dark as Mr. Wilson paints it.

For most readers the chapters on "Evidences of Civic Competence," "Methods, Materials, and the Evaluation of Instruction," and "School as Experience in Living" will prove particularly illuminating. Despite its limitations the volume merits careful reading.

HOWARD C. HILL

University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

America Reborn: A Plan for Decentralization of Industry. By Ralph L. Woods. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. viii, 376. \$3.00.

The author is a specialist in problems of transportation and traffic and, therefore, keenly conscious of the high degree of economic specialization that characterizes the various sections of the United States. He regards it and the attendant unequal distribution of population, wealth, and political power as distinctly undesirable. He proposes, therefore, a decentralization of industry and population, a movement away from urban centers and congested regions. In this volume, he seeks to explain how and why centralization has taken place, why it is socially and economically objectionable, and how decentralization may be encouraged.

There are thirteen chapters in three major divisions. Part I describes the past in terms of reasons for early urban development in this country. Major significance is attached to the *laissez-faire* philosophy of the Constitution, early concentration of wealth, location of the first canals and railroads, political power wielded by manufacturing interests during and after the Civil War, the manipulation of freight rates to favor larger cities, and the later development of corporations and holding companies dominated by financial interests. There follows a brief description of the resulting unequal distribution of population, occupational classes, opportunities for employment, income, and sales among cities, states, and geographic divisions.

Part II presents the author's objections to the present centralization. He regards urbanization as a major cause of economic insecurity and as being highly vulnerable from a military standpoint. Regional centralization and specialization are similarly indicted as wasteful, causing a maldistribution of wealth, and increasing distributive costs. Existing conditions cannot be justified, for, the author de-

clares, the earlier causes of centralization are no longer dominant.

Part III cites factors making for decentralization, among them the substitution of electric power for steam, the advantages of small manufacturing plants, the desirable dovetailing of employment in industry and agriculture, and several New Deal policies, including establishment of subsistence homesteads, enactment of fair trade practice laws, the TVA, Bonneville, and Grand Coulee experiments, and government planning. It concludes with a chapter presenting the author's rebuttal to the most common arguments against decentralization.

The book is much less a "plan for decentralization" than an argument in favor of it. The author has adopted a debating style, in which only one side of the question receives adequate consideration. This feature is regrettable, for it is probable that the argument is reasonably sound and would therefore profit from a more critical presentation. The book is marred, also, by repetition.

Exceptions must be taken to many of the author's statements and implications, as, for instance, that wages have only reached a "respectable level" because of labor organization (p. 81); that city children are "robbed of physical adventure and of helpful exploratory experiences of their own" (p. 90); that decentralization would necessarily occasion a reduction in the inequality of wealth distribution (p. 144-146); that the metropolitanite may move to Arkansas, Wyoming, or North Dakota and not seriously alter his manner of living (p. 191); that wealth-spreading may be accomplished without occasioning socially serious problems of saving and investment; that a shortage of skilled labor in any locality is inconceivable (p. 212); that a system of small plants is necessarily more flexible, more economical, or guarantees greater employment stability than one large plant (p. 253-261); that all or a large portion of labor wants to live on subsistence homesteads (p. 327). The table on page 210 apparently contradicts the text relating to it.

Such arbitrary declarations illustrate one weakness of this interesting book, a book which properly deserves commendation for pointing to a desirable economic readjustment. Also, however, it should be noted that the whole argument would be strengthened by application of more perspective, in which the proposed changes would be recognized as of a type that requires social evolution. The process of readjustment must necessarily be a slow one. For while we may agree on the ultimate values of decentralization, we do not want simply to move to the badlands and grow poorer together.

DALE YODER

University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

The Far Eastern Policy of the United States. By A. Whitney Griswold. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1939. Pp. 530. \$3.75.

This study is an analysis of American foreign policy in Eastern Asia from the acquisition of the Philippine Islands in 1898 to the present time. It is basically historical and chronological in treatment. The chapter headings are suggestive, however, not only of the treatment but also of rather natural divisions into which policy has fallen during these years: new frontiers in Asia—the Philippines, the Open Door notes, Theodore Roosevelt and World Politics, Dollar Diplomacy, the War in Europe, Wilson's challenge to Japan, from the Paris conference to Washington, freezing the Pacific, oriental immigration, the quest for collective security, and the "24-Hour" policy of the present administration.

Professor Griswold has drawn heavily upon the private papers of W. W. Rockhill and A. E. Hippiisley the real authors of the Hay Open Door notes, and likewise on the private papers of McKinley, Roosevelt, Root, Knox, Bryan and Lansing in the manuscripts division of the Library of Congress. To some extent, though it would appear by no means exhaustively, he has consulted the unpublished materials in the Department of State Archives 1898 to 1906.

The author's discussion of "New Frontiers in Asia" is of interest because of the stress laid on something which was not apparent to the American public: "... the clash of an American imperialism with a German imperialism." The discussion (chapter 2) of the background of the Hay Open Door notes is the most complete which has yet appeared. The fact that the policy was formulated by Hippiisley rather than by Rockhill or Hay; that the so-called open door was one policy, the independence and integrity of China another; and that Hay himself virtually abandoned the integrity doctrine so far as Manchuria was concerned are clearly revealed.

In dealing with the difficult and complex subject of Theodore Roosevelt's sally into world politics, Professor Griswold leans toward the interpretation that the President "in return for a Japanese pledge to respect the security of the Philippines" had given "Japan a free hand in Manchuria." The Taft-Knox policy commonly referred to as Dollar Diplomacy is described as an unsuccessful "attempt to force American capital by diplomatic pressure into a region of the world where it would not go of its own accord." Taft and Knox failed to break Japan's claims, and their policy "came to a close under the stigma of impairing rather than strengthening the territorial integrity of China." Wilson's resurrection of the China consortium in the years just preceding 1920 and his efforts to watch Japan through partici-

pation in the Siberian intervention are given adequate treatment.

Of American policy as applied to Manchuria in 1931, Professor Griswold notes that "The situation never admitted of any such simplified interpretation as that of a struggle between aggression and self-defense." Secretary Stimson employed every agency to put weight into his diplomacy "save the overt threat of force," yet his policy failed. "So ended the long cycle of American attempts to prevent Japan from expanding on the continent of Asia launched by Wilson and Lansing in 1917."

It is difficult to imagine a volume more timely than that which Professor Griswold has written. It is based on a wide knowledge and an accurate use of the sources. He has tested policy in the light of its performance and his interpretations are of significance not only to Americans but to peoples everywhere who have interests in the Pacific area.

PAUL H. CLYDE

Duke University
Durham, North Carolina

The Birth of the Oil Industry. By Paul H. Giddens. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. xxxix, 216. \$3.00.

Professor Giddens presents a fascinating narrative of the early stages in the development of the petroleum industry in the United States. In a preliminary chapter, he recalls the early references to "oil springs" in the western portion of the state of New York, appearance of petroleum in the salt wells of West Virginia, Ohio, and Kentucky, and the collection of floating oil in pits along the shores of Oil Creek and Pine Creek in northwestern Pennsylvania.

The author describes the inception and expansion of drilling operations in the Titusville neighborhood in northwestern Pennsylvania, from the execution of the first oil lease in 1853 through the formation of the Pennsylvania Rock Oil Company of New York in 1854 and that of the Seneca Oil Company of Connecticut in 1858, the financing of early drilling operations with attendant speculative real estate booms and recessions, the dramatic appearance of the first of the flowing wells (1861), the development of refineries, efforts undertaken to popularize the use of rock oil as a lubricant and illuminant both in this country and abroad, problems of transportation and their solution through development of pipe lines and tank cars, orgies of speculation in leases and in the stocks of prospecting companies that featured widespread popular recognition of the profit possibilities of the new industry, the rapid growth of oil towns and their equally sudden evacuation when wells ceased flowing, the creation of marketing facilities for the stocks of pioneering corporations, and

the efforts of speculators to manipulate these early exchanges. Major attention is, however, directed to the years from 1859 through 1869, in which oil production in the Pennsylvania field increased from 2,000 to 4,800,000 barrels per year. By 1869, exports of petroleum had reached an annual value volume of \$30,000,000.

The birth of the oil industry in these years evidences many social problems of continuing economic interest. One cannot but be impressed with the social difficulty involved in motivating desirable exploitation of natural resources and, at the same time, maintaining a necessary measure of conservation. Also, probably nowhere in such a short period of our history are the effects of continuing technological change upon employment more clearly discernible. As means of illumination, wax, tallow, and sperm oil gave way to coal oil, but the latter was even more quickly displaced by rock oil. Similarly, teamsters, who held a virtual monopoly on transportation from oil wells to railroads in the first few years of the period, found themselves almost completely eliminated by pipe lines. The driving forces of individual initiative and a competitive economic order could scarcely be better illustrated than by the story of early rock oil entrepreneurs. Their investments were made in the face of almost unlimited popular skepticism, and it is notable that no governmental encouragement or willingness to assume the attendant risks is recorded. Rewards, for those who succeeded, were fabulous. An investment of \$1,500 returned some \$2,500,000 in fifteen months. In another case, \$4,000 ventured paid its owners more than \$5,000,000 in less than two years. The whole story presents a startling tribute to the efficacy of the profit motive, whatever its deficiencies may be, as a major dynamic force in orderly social and economic progress.

The volume is thoroughly documented and includes a bibliography, a good index, and an appropriate introduction by Ida M. Tarbell. It represents a most commendable combination of scholarly fairness and thoroughness with an excellent literary style.

DALE YODER

University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Let the Record Speak. By Dorothy Thompson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company, 1939. Pp. 408. \$2.75.

This volume is made up chiefly of Dorothy Thompson's newspaper commentaries on the world situation over a period of three years from the spring of 1936 to the spring of 1939. Miss Thompson's column is so well-known (it is reproduced in 195 newspapers circulating to 7,500,000 readers, we are told) that few people will need to be reminded that she has been one of America's leading critics of Naziism.

Repeatedly she has proclaimed her conviction that the movement of which Adolph Hitler is the head represents a direct revolutionary assault on the values and institutions of liberal-democratic civilization and is more dangerous than its erstwhile rival—communism. Miss Thompson brings a keen mind, a moving sincerity, and fine literary talent to the elaboration of this thesis in the light of the daily march of European events. She is less justifiable, in this reviewer's opinion, in her naïve assumption that a "strong stand" by Great Britain and France could have stopped this revolutionary advance into central and eastern Europe in the last two years. Certain ineluctable geographical and military facts seem to have escaped the countless critics of Chamberlain's appeasement policy until the tragedy of Poland brought them into sharp relief. An ardent crusader like Miss Thompson is impatient of any procedure short of direct, forceful action; more sober observers may have agreed with her denunciations, but have calculated the frightful cost of the remedy, and concluded that it should only be resorted to when every other possible course of action had demonstrably ended in failure.

WILLIAM P. MADDOX

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Bryce's American Commonwealth: Fiftieth Anniversary. Edited by Robert C. Brooks. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp., xii, 245. \$2.50

This is the first—and probably the last—large-scale evaluation of certain aspects of Bryce's classic. It is good reading, with critical essays by Haines, Reinhold, Brooks, Graves, Holcombe, Coker, and Munro, and reprints of two contemporary reviews by Woodrow Wilson and Lord Acton. Bryce, who insisted he wrote primarily for a British audience, was almost surprised by his reception here. Yet one wonders, thinking of Britain, whether any country has relied so exclusively on one source for information about another. Bryce was so satisfactory that he hindered British studies on the United States for almost fifty years. More might have been said in this balanced memorial about the influence of the *American Commonwealth* abroad.

R. H.

Adult Education: A Publication of The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. By F. W. Reeves, T. Fansler, and C. O. Houle. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. Pp. 171. Illustrated. \$2.00.

This publication is one of ten studies related to the general study on Education for American Life.

The material was published by the Regents' Inquiry Committee because they felt, "it had a direct bearing upon the central issues and major problems emerging in public education." New York has a large adult population. Under present conditions of life, the adult is in the grip of a large group of new conduct-changing and conduct-making forces. Hence the problem of the democratic state includes not only the furnishing of new forces and new agencies for adult education, but also the channeling and vitalizing of forces already in operation.

Adult education is defined as any purposeful effort toward self-development, carried on by an individual without direct legal compulsion and without such effort becoming his major field of activity. It may be concerned with any or all of the three aspects of life: his work life, his personal life, and his life as a citizen. The growth of adult education is due to eight factors—universal literacy, suddenly increased work-free time, urbanization, new mechanisms of communication, insecurity, technological evolution, and the advance of science and democracy. Each of these factors is still a rising tide, and thus adult education stands at the threshold of new accomplishments.

It is reported that guidance courses suitable for the individual, or information on vocational opportunities, are practically non-existent in any thorough form. Very few attempts have been made to evaluate adult education. Here research is imperative. They also point out the lack of any consistent plan of financing public agencies. Private agencies have to pay their own way by student fees ranging from 25¢ to \$18.50 a credit hour. It is concluded that there is need for effective control of private agencies and for increasing publicly supported facilities. The study emphasizes that if the Regents adopt a general policy of state-wide application, it should be based on the principle of making adult education an integral part of public education.

In my opinion, the report is well constructed and readable. A careful perusal leaves one with the realization of the need for new technics in courses for adults. It may have occurred to some that no matter what various educators say, the adult students themselves will in the end get what they want in courses, discussion groups, forums and lectures.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mt. Vernon, New York

The Old Santa Fe Trail. By Stanley Vestal. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939. Pp. 276. Illustrated. \$3.00.

This is a lusty, gusty chronicle which well deserves a more striking title! Such engrossing subject matter must interest adult, college student, high

school pupil and younger brother alike. Almost any other section of this country has been given more space in print and more emphasis in history curricula. After enjoying this collection of human experiences one might well say, "It's gloriously alive and eminently American."

The amount of painstaking research is considerable. The author goes directly to sources which he lists under "Notes" in the Appendix and under "Bibliography" as well. When one adds the personal experiences of the author and the annals of his family, the result is an authentic document which will reward the worker in search of thesis material.

If this were all, the book would be worth any reader's time. But it's only the beginning. Each chapter retails thrilling adventure which forms an integral part of the chain of narrative. There are word pictures painted with the skill of an artist, as for example, the description of the Cemarron Spring on pages 189-190. Mr. Vestal's portrayal reveals pathos and drama, tragedy and heroism, and an understanding of human beings. Try to read of the joyride of the "Windwaggoners" on pages 7 and 8 and keep a straight face. To the student who may be uninformed about our Southwest, friendship with Mr. Vestal's book will bring rich returns.

LOUISE G. SIGMUND

Girard College
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Westward Movement: A Book of Readings on Our Changing Frontier. By Ina Faye Woestemeyer and J. Montgomery Gambrill. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1939. Pp. xx, 500. Illustrated. \$2.25.

This book of readings on the history of the West is composed largely of short extracts from varied sources such as books, articles, diaries, recollections, travels, official records, and documents. The selections are so well chosen that they touch upon practically every phase of frontier life: the struggle of nations for the control of the Mississippi Valley, the expedition of Lewis and Clark, the life of the frontiersmen, the building of cabins, the speculation in western lands, the problems of trade, finance, and industry, the navigation of the Mississippi and its tributaries, the gold rush to California, the pony express, the construction of the trans-continental railroad, and the work of schools, missions, and churches.

The book was written for use in high schools primarily, but it is well suited for college freshmen and sophomores. I recommend it to all high school teachers in American history.

Professor Gambrill of Columbia University gave editorial assistance and wrote the introduction. However, this excellent study is largely the work

of Ina Faye Woestemeyer, Head of the Department of Social Studies, Cheltenham High School, Elkins Park, Pennsylvania.

GEORGE D. HARMON

Lehigh University
Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

The Log Book of a Young Immigrant. By Laurence M. Larson. Northfield, Minnesota: Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1939. Pp. vii, 302. \$3.00.

Professor Larson's diary, now posthumously edited by Professor Theodore C. Blegen, should take its place permanently as a minor contribution to the literature of the American immigrant. It has no such literary charm as *The Americanization of Edward Bok*, nor does it deserve as autobiography to rank with the best American examples. Nevertheless, it is a plain and factual account of the adventures of a Norwegian boy in leaving his home country for the Iowa prairies in the early seventies. Through retrospective eyes, Professor Larson recaptured for his diary the impact of those early days: the economic conditions of the frontier farmer, the survival of old-world folk culture, the new Americanism, and the variety of frontier amusements, among which must be considered both the itinerant clergy with their revivals and the excitements of local politics. The poverty and hardships of these early frontiersmen in their efforts to found a new agricultural civilization form a quietly heroic picture. The adventures of the author at Drake College give a cross section of the midwest University at an early stage. The story of Professor Larson's rise to the rank of a leading historian in the new world, and his association with the American Historical Society and the Department of History of a great university, is a personal epic of great interest. While this work contributes little to literature, it will undoubtedly prove a source of information for the social historian.

SCULLEY BRADLEY

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Organization and Teaching of Social and Economic Studies in Correctional Institutions. By Glenn M. Kendall. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. ix, 159. \$1.85.

This volume, which deals with a neglected field of education, is the outcome of studies made by the New York State Commission on Education in Correctional Institutions. It emphasizes the practical aspects of the social studies. The report is significant from two angles: the objectives of penal rehabilitation and the organization of the studies themselves.

The first four chapters will interest the general reader for they deal with the development of correctional education, with prisoners' attitudes, and the function of social studies. Within a decade, prison education has been revamped and extended, and yet, as late as 1931, Commissioner MacCormick could assert that after a nation-wide survey, "not a single complete and well-rounded educational program adequately financed and staffed was encountered. . . ." The barrier between officers and inmates conditions education, but Kendall states that "the lack of interest in education on the part of inmates is all too often a commentary on the weak, antiquated, and unattractive program of education available in many institutions."

GUY V. PRICE

Teachers College
Kansas City, Missouri

Decisions and Attitudes as Outcomes of the Discussion of a Social Problem; an Experimental Study. By William Murray Timmons. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. vi, 106. \$1.60.

This study is an attempt to determine objectively the answer to a problem that concerns every teacher. Dr. Timmons conducted a series of experiments in two Ohio high schools to discover whether discussion of a social problem produced an appreciable improvement in the choice of solutions and attitudes of the students. His findings indicate that discussion does have a significant value in improving choice of decisions, but has little effect on attitudes.

While the study is admittedly limited in scope, it was conducted with thoroughness, and is described accurately and logically. All the materials used are included in the volume.

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Haddon Heights, New Jersey

You Americans. Edited by B. P. Adams. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company, 1939. Pp. xii, 348. \$2.50.

One cannot say that these journalistic impressions by fifteen foreign press correspondents are always profound, but they are stimulating and generally encouraging. One of the best essays is by Raoul de Roussy de Sales who talks about our "aloofness" and the psychopathic fear of foreign propaganda, and who believes that we are likely to emerge as the most conservative force of the future. "What actually threatens this country," he adds, "is too much impermeability to the influx of new ideas." An Italian fascist finds our country is rich while the people are poor. Those who are interested in Pan-Americanism may profitably turn to the impressions recorded by

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In dramatic, narrative form this book pictures the development of our national resources from America's founding to the present; the ill-considered waste of these resources over many years; and the beginnings of new undertakings on a national scale to save them. Foreword by Stuart Chase. Illustrated, \$1.76

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Interest and clearness are two fundamental qualities of this book. It makes economics interesting by finding the factors common to it and to everyday living; by employing apt illustrations from the pupil's daily experience. Up-to-the-minute 1939 Edition. \$1.68

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The laws just passed by Congress and the activities most recently set in motion by our national government are all fully explored in this revised edition, which teaches in every chapter the opportunities and responsibilities of alert, intelligent citizenship. \$1.48

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Carlos Dávila, Alberto Caprile, Jr., and Antonio Iglesias. Observers such as these help to form foreign opinions about us, but the total result seems less satisfactory than one might gather from this readable book.

R. H.

Americans in the Egyptian Army. By Pierre Crabitès. London: George Routledge and Sons, Ltd., 1938. Pp. xiii, 277. Illustrated. 12/6.

I agree with this Louisianian author who has served ably as judge of the Cairo Mixed Tribunal that, "America may well be proud of the work done by her sons" in leading the vanguard of civilization into darkest Africa. This exciting and original history of Northerners and Southerners working together under a Moslem prince, Ismail Pasha, can be profitably read by those interested in Egypt and those who have broad conceptions as to what constitutes American history. Ismail, who wanted to extend his Empire and shake off the overlordship of Turkey and the domination of France, had been impressed by our ability to frighten France out of Mexico. Among the fifty officers who served Egypt between 1869 and 1882 may be mentioned Brigadier-General Charles P. Stone, Chief-of-Staff of the Khedival forces, Major Erastus Purdy, Colonel R. E. Colston, and Chaillé-Long and Alexander Mason who played an important part in the exploration of the Nile.

R. H.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Economics: An Introduction to Fundamental Problems. By A. H. Smith. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Revised Edition. Pp. 559. Illustrated. \$1.68.

This book is a splendid basic text for the study of economics in high school. In the 1939 revision, Chapter 26 (Transportation) has been improved but the topics pertaining to "Long and Short Haul" and "Rate Discrimination" have not been sufficiently revised to bring about a clear understanding. The chapter on Labor Organization and Methods (Chapter 32) has been revised and brought up to date in regard to the Congress of Industrial Workers. In Chapter 33 (Industrial Problems), a revision has been made concerning the "Remedies for Unemployment" which give the latest details pertaining to the subject, including an improved discussion on the "Townsend Plan," and the more recent legislation: The Wagner Act, Norris-LaGuardia Anti-Injunction Act, Byrnes Anti-Strikebreaker Act, and the Fair Labor Standards Act. The aims at the beginning of each chapter prove very valuable to both the teacher and students and the variety of activities at the end of each chapter make the subject more real

and interesting. The Glossary at the end of the book is so well prepared that it should be called a Vocabulary in Economics.

DAVID W. HARR

Olney High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Elementary Economics. By F. R. Fairchild, E. S. Furniss and N. Buck. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Fourth Edition. Volume I, Pp. 701, \$2.50; Volume II, Pp. 692, \$2.50.

These two volumes include all the fundamentals and principles that any instructor of beginners in economics could desire for students of the college level. This work, first published in 1926 has been revised frequently. The important changes in this edition are as follows. The whole section on Price has been reorganized in order to incorporate the concept of imperfect competition as an integral part of Price. In the section on Money and Banking, some clarification in the statement of principles has been made, and the material has been arranged to include recent monetary and banking legislation. The European and Canadian banking systems have been carefully revised and brought up to date. Recognition has been given to recent advances in the theory and practice of "Managed Money" and Stabilization Funds. Chapter 37 has been enlarged by the discussion of recent official restrictions upon International Trade and the problems of reciprocal trade regulations, including Secretary Hull's trade agreement program. In Part VII, the discussion of Labor Problems has been revised to take account of recent governmental policies affecting wages, hours, conditions of work, and the relations of the employers and employees, including social security legislation. In Part IX, much new material has been added to include an impartial description of socialism, communism and fascism.

The exercises at the end of the various chapters are well prepared with questions of fact on the text, and excellent thought questions for oral discussion.

DAVID W. HARR

Olney High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

History of the United States. By Asa Earl Martin. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1938. Volume II. Pp. xvii, 857. \$4.00.

In this book Professor Martin has revised and added to his *History* which was first published in 1931. The material has been changed with a view to bringing the momentous events of recent years into the perspective of American history since 1865. Two chapters have been added to treat the New Deal and its program, and the chapter on Social and Cultural Tendencies since 1890 considerably revised.

Dr. Martin has attempted to write impartially on the occurrences of the past few years and to a commendable extent has succeeded. Of the many propositions and counter-propositions which have been offered to salvage our economic system, some of which have become law, others temporary law, and still others only subjects for debate, he has sifted out the salient contributions of the New Deal. The facts are there. As to interpretation, one must agree with Dr. Martin that "events connected with the history of this period are too recent to permit of more than tentative conclusions." It would be unjust, therefore, to question Dr. Martin's mild Anti-New Dealism. There are seventeen maps and an adequate index. At the end of the volume, bibliographical references are given for each chapter. For a survey course in post-Civil War American history, it ranks with the best of those texts offered so far.

EDGAR B. CALE

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Growth of American Democracy. Social: Economic: Political. By Jeannette P. Nichols and Roy F. Nichols. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1939. Pp. xvii, 819. Illustrated. \$4.00.

This is not "just another textbook," although good textbooks are not to be despised. It not only serves the immediate scholastic purpose of the college student; it develops and illustrates a theme, the growing democratization of American life, the successes and failures. The authors do not insist that democracy should be interpreted in a narrowly and mechanically egalitarian sense, but they insist on the general trend to functional equality, the denial of the special privileges of the old ruling class booted and spurred to ride.

The authors are reasonably optimistic, but they are not uncritically so. In so close-packed a book as this there are bound to be statements with which one disagrees and some of these differences arise from a different view of what helps or hinders democracy. One may doubt, for instance, if the popularity of the *American Mercury* was harmful to democratic development. Really living American culture did not suffer from the application of the Mencken *litmus* paper and, if only by his insistence on the right of the spoken language to a place in the sun, Mencken was a liberator of democratic forces.

Less important are some details. One of the many merits of the volume is that there are no meaningless and few ambiguous sentences. Each page is full of meaning; there are no lists of unidentified names, and no lofty allusions to the unexplained. But the compression of the book has led to some misleading ways of putting a complicated story. The date of the

royal resumption of authority in Virginia (p. 34), the reference to British "citizens" instead of to "subjects" (p. 103), the implication that Pope was Commander of the Army of the Potomac (p. 258), the reference to Dowie's disciples as "Zionists" which will mislead those who think of the Jordan rather than of Lake Michigan (p. 501), the reference to the inspiration of John Hopkins' "tutelage" are slips. There is occasional chronological ambiguity.

But all students of American history will learn a great deal from this masterly survey. This reviewer was, for example, delighted to learn that there was an easily shockable old lady in Westchester county who was worried about what she could read to her daughters, before the daughters of the old lady from Dubuque began to worry about what they could read to her! And there is grim satisfaction in reading of the unavailing fight against the corset menace with the "health waist" when, at this moment, *per* Mainbocher, the old world is trying to upset the balance of the new. Excellently illustrated by photographs, with helpful diagrams, this survey may be confidently recommended to the general public, and to the studious youth of both sexes.

D. W. BROGAN

Oxford, England

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

How to Keep America Out of War. By Kirby Page. American Friends Service Committee, Peace Section, 20 South 12 Street, Philadelphia, Pa. Pp. 95. 15 cents.

Published coöperatively by several peace organizations. Present war is described as one between rival imperialisms. War's considered the worst means of diminishing Hitlerism. Suggests national and individual program.

Talking About Czechoslovakia. By Marie Polenská. New York: Bohemia Press, 1939.

A few highlights to appeal to Americans.

America Charts Her Course. By David H. Popper. World Affairs Pamphlet, No. 6, November 1939. Foreign Policy Association, 8 W. 40th St., New York, N.Y. 25 cents.

Discusses possibilities and problems of our neutrality, American economy and methods of defense.

The United States and World Organization During 1938. *International Conciliation*, No. 352, September, 1939. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 W. 117th Street, N.Y. 5 cents.

A useful account, arranged topically.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Ideas are Weapons. The History and Uses of Ideas. By Max Lerner. New York: The Viking Press, 1939. Pp. xiv, 553. \$3.50

Discusses the uses of ideas, a gallery of Americans and Europeans, and the current role of ideas in contemporary life.

Shakespeare in America. By Esther C. Dunn. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xiv, 310. Illustrated. \$3.50.

An effort to discover how Shakespeare took the emphasis of each succeeding era.

A Short History of the American Negro. By Benjamin Brawley. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xv, 288. Fourth Revised Edition, \$2.00.

A brief story of the Negro in America.

New Adventures in Democracy. By Ordway Tead. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. xi, 229. \$2.00.

Discusses the practical applications of the democratic idea in industry, public education, and public service.

Back to Self-Reliance. By Mathew N. Chappell. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. ix, 239. \$2.00.

Demonstrates how paternalism in the home, school, society, and government exerts a disintegrating influence on character and personality.

Casebook in American Business History. By N. S. B. Gras and Henrietta M. Larson. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1939. Pp. viii, 765. \$5.00.

Made up of forty-three cases or problems with emphasis on business administration, from mercantile capitalism to national capitalism.

Biography by Americans; 1658-1936. By Edward H. O'Neill. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1939. Pp. x, 465. \$4.00.

A subject bibliography.

Hannah Courageous. By Laura Long. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. x, 246. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Quaker life before the Civil War for young readers.

Washington and the Lafayettes. By Frank and Corielle Hutchins. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Illustrated. \$2.50.

A story of Washington and Lafayette's family.

Tennessee Outpost. By Ivy Bolton. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. viii, 244. \$2.00.

A novel of pioneer America.

Our Democracy. By Edwin C. Broome and Edwin W. Adams. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. x, 466. Illustrated. \$1.32.

A textbook for ages twelve to fifteen.

Student's Guide to the Study of American History. By Charles R. Nelson. Oxford, Miss.: Magnolia Publishing Company, 1939. Pp. 160. Maps.

A workbook designed to be used with any textbook in American history.

Workbook to Accompany the Nations Today. By Bruce Overton. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. 143. 48 cents.

Designed for a text in geography.

Study Guide and Workbook. By Harry D. Berg and W. W. Taylor. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1939. Pp. 120. Maps. 48 cents.

Based on Becker and Duncalf's *Story of Civilization*.

Trails to Self-Direction. By Margaret E. Bennett and Harold C. Hand. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939.

Series I (40 cents) to accompany *School and Life*; Series II (24 cents) for *Designs for Personality*; Series III (24 cents) for *Beyond High School*.

Seeing Our Country: Book Two. By Walter B. Pitkin and Harold F. Hughes. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xii, 384. Illustrated \$1.60.

Presents a picture of industrial United States.

Forestry and Lumbering. By Josephine Perry and Celeste Slauson. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. 125. Illustrated. \$1.50.

The second book in the series *America at Work*.

Principles of Economics. By F. W. Taussig. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Fourth Edition, Vol. II. Pp. xvii, 595. \$3.00.

Discusses the distribution of wealth, labor, economic organization, and taxation.

You Americans. By B. P. Adams. New York: Funk and Wagnalls, 1939. Pp. xii, 348. \$2.50.

The American scene as reviewed by fifteen correspondents of great foreign newspapers.